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The Articulation of High School and College Foreign Language Study

MY discussion¹ of this topic does not presume to include a solution of the problem. Indeed, it is my intention only to "open the problem"—as if it were a festering sore that needs lancing. The services of a council of surgeons will be required to bring about the cure of a difficulty so complicated and dangerous for the success of our language program. My task will be to define and delimit the problem in such a way that the full light of information will fall squarely on the sore spots. The probing will be concluded with the suggestion of some instruments which may be used to effect an ultimate cure.

Let no criticism of, nor blame for, the present lack of coordination be attached to high school or college teachers because of my statements. My close association for twenty-two years with thousands of high school and preparatory school teachers from all over this country leads me to marvel constantly at their skill, their devotion and their patience. In spite of handicaps of insufficient time for training, low salaries, crowded classes, inadequate equipment and the necessity of pleasing a dozen different masters, our secondary school colleagues are doing a thoroughly creditable job; they deserve the congratulations, the understanding and the loyal support of college teachers. Nor, in my opinion, are we college teachers greatly to be blamed. We too have our problems, and we have little opportunity to get a broad view of all phases of the situation. The fact is that we are each too busy rowing our own boat and keeping it from upsetting to notice that the gangplank which connects us frequently slips off and lets the passengers drown in deep water.

Let us, therefore, study this problem of articulation between college and high school as objectively and as critically as possible. Admitting that we do not have at present the proper coordination and that the situation is serious, let us try to define and isolate the problem, determine what factors are involved and what factors are not primarily concerned. Stated in its simplest terms the question is: Why does it so often happen that a pupil, who has enjoyed a foreign language in high school and has done well in it according to the judgment of his teachers, finds the adjustment to a college course difficult, has to drop back to a lower level, receives poorer grades and loses interest?

¹ This article, with some changes, is the text of the address given by Dr. Freeman before the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association on May 10, 1947. *Ed's. note.*

The present discussion, it should be noticed, does not concern itself with students who begin the study of a language in college nor with students in high school who do not go on to college. Their existence complicates the solution of our problem, but they do not enter into our question strictly defined. We are limiting ourselves now to the situation of a student who has begun a foreign language in high school or preparatory school and then for any reason takes another course in it in college. This happens most commonly in the study of French, Spanish and German.

What then are the difficulties, the obstacles that stand in the way of proper articulation? First, I shall point to the lapse of an interval of time between the end of the course in high school and the continuation in college. A great many students enter a language course in college after an interval of one year, some after two years or even three. This is especially true now for the veterans. I talked last week with a student in our freshman French class who had had three years of French five years ago! Of course he is finding it difficult. This problem will remain with us as long as we have veterans in our classes. It may even become permanent if a year of military training is inserted between high school and college. But even if we set aside the veteran as an abnormal situation, we know that far too many students—we might almost say the average student in many places—begins French in the sophomore year in high school, takes the regular two-year course and has no foreign language in his senior year. Sometimes even, he cannot get a language course into his freshman program, and two years pass before he can pick up the threads again. Small wonder that he has forgotten most of the grammar he knew and has difficulty with reading. The April² *Modern Language Journal* has a disquieting article by Professor Clapp of Grinnell College. He gives figures to show that as a result of a placement test, 47 per cent of the incoming students, 63 of a group of 134 who had been exposed to a year or more of Spanish, were unable to continue in the proper course and had to be advised to start Spanish over again or to try a different language. Worse still, the successful 53 per cent who were allowed to continue could not keep up in the second year college class; they had to have a special intermediate course at a lower level manufactured for them. Of the total group of 134, 50 had suffered a lapse of two or more years in their study of Spanish; 41 more had had an interval of one year. Professor Clapp comes to the conclusion that recency of study is the primary factor in the successful continuation in college of a language started in high school.

A second major obstacle that stands in the way of proper articulation is improper placement. I can say categorically that the fundamental cause of poor work by a freshman in a college language class is *not* insufficient preparation in high school. Let us be logical. "Sufficient" means that which suf-

² April, 1947, pp. 203-207.

fices *for* something. High school preparation which is entirely adequate for one type of course at one level is entirely inadequate for a different type of course at that level or for a course at a higher level. When we say a freshman is insufficiently prepared, we mean that his preparation is not suited to the course into which we had intended to put him or into which we or someone else thought he ought to go. Now if we change our minds and put him into some different course, he may turn out to be prepared with entire adequacy for that course and able to go forward with success and enjoyment. In this sense, proper articulation is purely a problem of proper placement.

We know of course that the standard pattern says that if a student has had two years of French in high school, he *ought* to be able to do second year college French along with students who have had one year in college. And if he cannot, we generalize that he was insufficiently prepared in high school. We neglect the many other factors involved—How long an interval has there been? Has he language aptitude? Is he college material and is he making the adjustment to college well in other subjects? Is the level of the freshman requirement properly fixed? Have the one-year college students had extra time or special advantages?—and a dozen other aspects of the problem.

Nothing is more dangerously inaccurate as a basis for placement than this rule of thumb that two years in high school equal one year in college. It is hopelessly complicated by the vicious practice in some colleges of allowing entrance credit for one year of a language. We all know that careful study of the medians in any set of achievement tests will show that the best students in a first year class will be up to the median of a second year class and sometimes will equal the poorest showing in a third year class. Conversely, the poor students in the second year usually know little more than the average students of the first year.

Improper placement also results commonly from the wide differences in emphasis or objective. Each year a number of students come to us at Middlebury who are sufficiently prepared in grammar and vocabulary for silent reading but who have never talked in French in class nor heard a connected conversation in French by the teacher. They find it very difficult to follow a class taught entirely in French by a native teacher. If their foundation of grammar and vocabulary is solid, we coach them along and they usually pull through because they enjoy this sort of stimulating challenge and rise to it. But we recognize that it is faulty placement on our part, because the high school concerned had done a good job according to its own objective and methods. We do not agree with it, but no one gave us the authority to sit in judgment.

The converse may just as likely be true. A student studies French for two years under a teacher who emphasizes oral work, and he acquires a beautiful pronunciation and considerable facility in speaking. He arrives

at a college which stresses the value of the literary masterpieces of France and is placed in a course where the program is rapid reading in plays of Corneille and Racine, explained by lectures in English. He is unable to make the grade in spite of desperate efforts and is disheartened, even disgusted to find that his cherished oral facility is unused and unappreciated. I regret to say that this experience is far too common—high school and preparatory school courses giving a rather remarkable oral fluency and freshman college courses consisting of a literature survey conducted in English, based on a mere reading knowledge. Mr. Delano of Lake Forest Academy, editor for the Secondary Education Board of a stimulating little paper called *Foreign Language Notes*, has cited some experiences of his. He speaks of two of his pupils, one with two and a half years of French, the other a poorer student with two years. They both entered a certain university. The first one was given a placement test for the A.B. course and was placed in French One; the second, the poorer student, took a placement test as a B.S. candidate and was placed in French Two.

This leads me to the third general obstacle blocking proper correlation—the vague definition or even total lack of definition of the precise objectives of language study in our high school and college courses. If we look ourselves squarely in the eye, we have to admit we do not know exactly what we are trying to do in our classes. We see language instruction threatened, and we use every possible advantage, derivative and by-product of our trade as an argument. We find our place in the curriculum contested, and we claim to be doing all sorts of fine things for the student, all at the same time. Then knowing perfectly well that we cannot teach speaking, reading and writing; develop the language as a tool for research and for international rehabilitation; interpret the literature, history, geography, art, culture of the foreign country; train the pupil in logical thinking; explain English grammar and enlarge the pupil's English vocabulary; teach foreign language songs and coach language dramatics for assembly programs—all this and Heaven too—simultaneously in our language classes; we try to do a little of everything, without ever deciding very clearly which is most important. The result is that one school stresses one objective, another a different one; and it is almost impossible for a pupil to go from one school to another and find the same objectives stressed and the same techniques used.

Nor is this entirely or even largely the fault of the language teacher himself. Any attempt to restrict and define our objectives is beset by many dangers and dilemmas. In most high schools the language course is not exclusively college preparatory. It is, therefore, a terminal course for many if not most of the students. It must be a unit in itself and have terminal or surrender value. It must teach all sorts of things pertaining to general education, some of which I have named above, in order to justify its place in a curriculum for non-college students. It must prove its correlation and in-

tegration with commercial courses, technology and manual arts. And it must beware of speaking too loudly about the enrichment of the individual mind because that is not democratic and the present hue and cry is for a social education.

The college language courses find their objectives forced on them in the same way. Many institutions have a degree requirement in languages set by the faculty, and each department has a different idea about what it should be. Sometimes it is a qualifying exam, sometimes a required course. The science departments wish the student to have the ability to read technical texts, even though they themselves never give him any to read. The humanities departments are in favor of the reading of literary texts and courses in literary criticism. The social sciences prefer courses which will impart a knowledge of the history and civilization of the foreign country with its international relationships. The music, dramatic and speech departments urge us to work on pronunciation. The student himself is usually more interested in a speaking or a reading knowledge for a particular professional objective. Finally, the dean and the registrar are gravely concerned that the hurdle shall be such that all students can pass it without too great discomfort. The result is that in the college, as in the high school, the language course is too often "all things to all men."

The fourth general obstacle which in my opinion prevents proper articulation between high school and college language courses is the lack of reciprocal information about objectives and methods. The simple fact is that the average high school teacher does not know, and would find it difficult to discover, what sort of preparation a certain college would like to find in its freshmen. We cannot consider it defective teaching if the high school teacher in such a situation points the pupil in the general direction that seems logical and advances him as far as possible. Insufficient preparation in this case is the responsibility of the college; it does not inform the school which is trying to serve it of the type of training considered relevant and adapted to its own objectives. It is evident that a teacher preparing a class for a score of different colleges is faced with a hopeless task if each college places the emphasis upon a different skill or objective. Yet the exchange of clear and helpful information is the first step, and only confusion can result without it.

Looking at the same problem from the other point of view, that of the college, we may lament the fact that most college teachers are completely ignorant of the methods, the materials and the complications of a high school language class. Few visit a high school class regularly, fewer still have taught in high school. If college teachers were better informed and had a more sympathetic understanding of what high school teachers are able to do, compared with what they are trying to do under difficulties, we should not only criticize less but we should know better how to adapt our instruction

to the students they send us. We argue too much about methods. As far as *articulation* is concerned, the method followed in high school matters very little. A conscientious, hardworking and well trained high school teacher can follow any method she likes, and the college teacher can take her pupils and place them so that they will continue the study of French with pleasure and profit and without handicap, *provided* (and here is the problem) he knows exactly what she has done with the pupils and how and why. Our articulation problem in college is not one of improper methods of preparation used in high school but rather a fatal absence of liaison, a complete lack of information about the program followed and the methods used in preparing our students. So I try to ask my freshmen: "How much French have you studied?" "Two years." (Which really does not answer the question at all.) "What grammar texts did you use?" "Well, several things, I don't remember their names." "Did you talk much French in class?" "Oh, sometimes; she tried to make us, but we didn't." This happens over and over again with phonographic similarity.

This problem of the articulation of language courses between high school and college would be very discouraging if it applied only to modern languages. Yet every other subject which students begin in high school and continue in college is suffering from the same malady and meeting the same obstacles. Our students are required to take four years of English in high school, but they arrive at college and write atrocious English in their history or political science reading reports; they do not know enough English grammar to follow an analysis of style; and many colleges are introducing a freshman course in written composition which is admittedly given at the high school level to compensate for the deficiencies in entrance preparation. Mathematics present the same situation. Any college mathematics teacher will tell you that the great majority of college freshmen have no clear idea of what algebra and geometry are all about and cannot use the simplest tools of mathematical reasoning. Practically every college in the country has had to introduce for veterans and others a course in review algebra, sub-freshman mathematics, because they cannot follow the regular freshman course. What is the reason for all the hue and cry about teaching American history in college? It is simply because everyone knows that high school graduates, after studying American history every year in grade school and one or two years in high school are really not familiar with the growth of the American nation. As for chemistry and biology—most colleges have two beginning courses, one for freshmen who have never had any, one for those who have had a year or sometimes two in high school; but they are both beginning courses and both prepare for the same second year course. High school physics is not usually recognized by college physics at all; students begin over again just as if they had never seen it. We are no worse off than other college preparatory subjects, and in many ways, we are much better off.

This is negative consolation. Let me say a few words of positive encouragement and constructive suggestion. Do not expect too much for the problem is a huge one, and anyone would be a patent medicine salesman who claimed to bring you a panacea. I have tried so far to analyze and define the problem in the belief that, when clarified and defined, the remedies will be more evident. Let us now look back at the various aspects of the problem and the obstacles which we mentioned.

First was the lapse of an interval of time between studying a language in high school and continuing it in college. What can we do about it? Shall we resign ourselves to a standard two-year course in high school and advise students not to begin it until the junior year? Shall we advise them to postpone all language study until college? (Thus we throw upon the college and its overburdened schedule an introductory study which does not belong there.) Neither horn of the dilemma is acceptable as Professor Clapp points out in the article referred to above. We should like to see American boys and girls begin a foreign language in the seventh grade and continue it without interruption into college—a minimum of six years—as is done in Europe or South America. We shall have long to wait before that ideal is achieved. But on the basis of practical expediency, here are a few definite suggestions that may improve the situation.

(1) A one-year high school course in a foreign language should never be accepted for college entrance credit—two years minimum or start over again. This rule is in effect in most colleges and should be everywhere. All high schools should require that a foreign language be studied at least two years for high school diploma credit.

(2) A third-year language class should be available in every high school that prepares students for college, and it should be strongly recommended, if not required, for all students who intend to continue that language in college. Let us concentrate at least on a campaign for these essentials—a minimum of two years and three years available for college preparatory students—and we shall do much to cut out the tragic interval and improve language teaching in general.

(3) Personal coaching. There will still be a number of students who cannot arrange their program to avoid an interval. Every high school language teacher should be urged to keep a jealous eye on his former pupils and, if they plan to continue the language in college, inform them of the pitfall that awaits them and insist that they do a certain amount of reading and exercise material under supervision—enough at least to keep the rust from forming. This sort of personal coaching will take some time, but it is very rewarding and will gradually convince the authorities that the interval should not be allowed.

(4) Another possible compromise is to begin the foreign language early and to let the interval come early if it must be. Let us continue our campaign for a foreign language in the seventh and eighth grades, taught orally with

a minimum of grammar, stressing comprehension, some speaking and reading. Let the interval come if necessary until the third year of high school, then two more years of serious grammar and reading. The oral foundation will have been laid and not too badly forgotten. The interval will do less harm between the eighth and tenth grades than between high school and college when the transition to new modes of study and habits of life is also being made.

The minimum two-year and recommended three-year course is naturally the best practical solution to this problem.

The next obstacle which we mentioned is improper placement, and we pointed out the danger of placing students merely on the basis of length of time they have been exposed to a foreign language. The solution here seems evident—the college freshman teacher should use extreme care to make sure that each student is properly diagnosed and assigned. All possible information should be secured about his high school program, length of study, interval elapsed and other pertinent details; this should aid the interpretation of his score in various tests—especially his college entrance achievement test if it was taken; his scholastic aptitude or I.Q. test because these correlate very closely with language ability, particularly the verbal factor of the scholastic aptitude test; and finally the battery of Cooperative Language Tests which should be administered not later than the first day of the class. All these guides taken together, plus a personal interview with doubtful cases, will solve most of the difficulties of improper placement. It is evident that the college teacher will weight most heavily in the diagnosis the skills or the type of preparation which correspond to the objective of the course which the student wishes to enter—reading ability for a reading course, oral ability for an oral course. When the student is finally assigned to the proper course, he should not be penalized, either in entrance credits or degree credits, if he is not in the course where the calendar says he ought to be.

No solution appears for the third general obstacle—the vast diversity and indefiniteness of our objectives in language teaching. I am enough of an individualist to insist that each teacher, whether in high school or college, has a right and duty to define his own objectives and choose his own method in keeping with needs of his pupils; and also enough of a realist to recognize that we would get nowhere if we tried to set up a standardized objective and method for all circumstances. However, permit me to state my own opinion briefly. The chief aims of the high school course should be, in general, an active skill in the language through oral expression within classroom limits, a good basic pronunciation, a firm foundation in the essentials of grammar, an introduction to intelligent reading for pleasure and some fundamental knowledge of the foreign country. The chief aims of the college course should be the further development of skills in oral fluency and grammatical knowledge for those who will major in it; for all students, majors

and non-majors, there should be a complete utilization of the acquired skills through large amounts of reading for content—literary or cultural or scientific—and through a careful study, in the foreign language, of literary ideas and style and all phases of the nation's civilization. The preparatory school course should develop the tool skill while stimulating the desire to use it; the college course should use the skill as completely as possible while further sharpening the tool for special purposes.

This theoretical statement will lay me wide open to objections from all sides. I admit at once, therefore, that it is entirely futile to try to secure uniformity of objective and method in either high school or college courses. Conditions and circumstances vary too widely and present hundreds of divergent factors, from the matters of town population and budget to the personalities of the teachers involved.

This gives added importance to the last obstacle which we mentioned, the lack of adequate reciprocal information. Here, we can and must do something about it. The solution is in our own hands. In gatherings of this sort, where high school and college teachers sit down side by side and talk things over, where in friendly collaboration we explain our various viewpoints, lies the best informal remedy. Yet something further and more tangible should be done. Would it not be possible without too much machinery, for organizations of language teachers to request all the colleges in their area, through their language departments, to supply in tabulated form the essential information which is needed by the high school and preparatory schools which serve them? The following are merely a suggestion: (1) What courses are open to freshmen, their description and comparative levels. (2) What placement tests are used. (3) What objectives are stressed, and what type of preparation is best. (4) What books are used—grammars, readers and others. With definite information of this sort, the high school teacher could make some estimate of the sort of method and materials which would serve the largest number of his pupils and could give special advice to the others.

On the other hand, would it be too difficult for a language teacher in high school to give each college-preparatory pupil at the end of the year a brief mimeographed statement of the course as it has been taught—books used, objectives stressed, the general success or weakness of the class and the standing of this particular student? The statement could be handed to the instructor of the freshman college course and would be invaluable in placing the student properly. These proposals seem simple enough; all they need is that the proper committee of the language association sponsor the college survey, distribute the results and prepare a sample sheet for the high school teacher's summary report. Once launched, the demand would insure its continuance.

These suggestions which have been made are not complete remedies nor

sure cures. There is no "one a day brand" which will solve all our troubles. I expect that we shall have articulation pains as long as we are fortunate enough to have pupils who begin a language in high school and continue it in college. We must be realistic and practical; perhaps even the definition of the problem will help to clear our thinking on it.

Allow me to offer one final word of warning. This problem of articulation is only one aspect of the broader one of correlation between our little language class and the great complex world about us. Let us never get the notion that our class is an end in itself or that we are teaching language in a vacuum. The teacher who shuts himself up in the four walls of his classroom will never be able to kindle a fire of interest in the minds of our twentieth century youth. But the teacher who has eyes and ears wide open to everything that is happening in the realms of human activity will more easily correlate high school to college and to a profession, and most important of all, to a warm, healthy philosophy of life. Let us be sure first of all that we teachers are well articulated as real human beings.

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Adventures in Language Learning

A LINEAL descendant of M. Jourdain, who came to life in 1670 in Molière's *Le bourgeois gentilhomme* and whose great-grandson came to America in 1730, was born in New York in the year 1910. Like his famous ancestor, the American Mr. Jourdain is now quite rich. He happened to own some Kansas wheat-land and he inherited some shares of stock in a Philadelphia firm that started making munitions for England and France in 1940. Before the war, he never wanted to visit the country where his distinguished forefather had been so heartily laughed at. But his friends persuaded him that he should go to Paris after the war. "You will see," his friends assured him, "a lot of amusing things. You will be able to laugh at the Parisians just as they laughed at your ancestor. But, of course, if you want to enjoy your trip, you must learn French."

Convinced, Mr. Jourdain looked around for the best teachers. The first M. Jourdain, as we all know, engaged four masters—for music, dancing, fencing and philosophy. It must have been the mysterious influence of fate that impelled the American Mr. Jourdain likewise to engage four teachers—a linguist, a phonetician, a direct methodist and an eclecticist. The seventeenth century M. Jourdain made the mistake of assembling his four masters in his house at the same time with disastrous results. They had a furious and hilarious quarrel. His American descendant wisely engaged his teachers in succession.

At Mr. Jourdain's first lesson with the linguist, the latter admitted that he could not speak French. He proceeded, however, to explain the relation of French to forty-seven other languages. In the second lesson he described in some detail the development of Classical Latin through Vulgar Latin into Old French, Middle French and Modern French. Unfortunately Mr. Jourdain had forgotten almost all the little Latin he had once known; most of the linguist's learned discourse passed over his head. For the third lesson, the linguist brought along an assistant whom he called an "informant." This young man, obviously not well educated, poured out a stream of talk that was probably pure Parisian French but which seemed to Mr. Jourdain to be merely a long succession of senseless sounds. When this sort of exercise had been repeated day after day for several weeks, the linguist gave Mr. Jourdain a book in which the sounds he had been listening to were written down. Mr. Jourdain found such intriguing sentences as the following:

es kə məsyeu e madam durā ɔt un FIY?

ɛu-n ɔtr ami a MWA e-t e-tu-DYĀ.

ro-BER—i-l y A si sā sēKĀT kiloMETR, ou kat sā MIL,

d mar-SEY a pa-RI.

After some thirty or forty lessons, Mr. Jourdain began to be able to decipher this strange language, which he naïvely took to be French. Before going to Paris he was already enjoying some good laughs at the expense of people who used so strange a jargon. One day, however, an acquaintance of his, having learned that he was taking French lessons, placed in his hands a French-language newspaper published in New York. Mr. Jourdain was amazed to find that what he was painfully and patiently learning to read bore practically no resemblance to the language of the newspaper. He dismissed the linguist forthwith. He had never been able to understand what information the "informant" was trying to give him. He let him go, too.

The phonetician was summoned. At their first meeting the new teacher made Mr. Jourdain feel very much ashamed of himself for not knowing what a phoneme was. But he had confidence in the method he was about to try, for, when the phonetician announced that he would begin with the alphabet, Mr. Jourdain dimly remembered that that was how as a child he had learned English in school. Was it not sensible to learn a foreign language in the same way as one's native tongue?

The alphabet Mr. Jourdain learned seemed to be a cross between English and Greek, but after several weeks of persistent endeavor, he could pronounce fairly well the sentences which he found in his new textbook and which looked like this:

se-tæ-pə-ti-təm, nəspa?
alezotablonwa:r, silvuple.

To be sure, these queer-looking words had a peculiar resemblance to those of his first book and little resemblance to the French of the newspaper, but the phonetician assured him that if he would only be patient, he would be allowed to learn a different manner of writing and would then be able to read stories, plays, and novels without any trouble at all. After four months, two weeks and three days of lessons, the phonetician explained to him the forms of the definite article, *le, la, les*.

One day Mr. Jourdain was boasting of his rapid progress to a gentleman whose son was taking French in high school.

"*Le, la, les!*" exclaimed Mr. Jourdain. "We've already got to the definite article!"

"My dear fellow," answered his friend, "my boy learned *le, la, les* the very first day he was in a French class! He can already read simple French and is enjoying immensely a book of stories!"

Overwhelmed by the thought of all the time he had lost, Mr. Jourdain dismissed the phonetician and vowed that never again would he be tricked into thinking that it was worth while to read and write such forms as

"məsɔ, ʃɛʁʃe la fam."

Summoning the direct methodist, Mr. Jourdain had with him one brief interview.

"I shall teach you French just as you learned English, in the most natural way in the world," announced his new master. Mr. Jourdain remembered having heard something of the sort before. "When you were a baby in your cradle," the direct methodist went on, "you weren't taught the alphabet or the definite article or rules of grammar. You learned to speak by listening and by trying to speak."

"Quite right," agreed Mr. Jourdain, "but I am no longer a baby in a cradle. And if I am not mistaken, it was a long, long time after I graduated from the cradle before I could read a book! I should like to read some books about France before I go there. I should like to know something about ancient châteaux and modern customs. And when I get there, I want to be able to read the menus in the restaurants, and my hotel bills before I pay them, and the theater programs, and the newspapers. Why can't I learn to read right away? I have wasted nearly a year with your two predecessors who contend as you do that oral French must come before written French, and all I can read is *le, la, les!* Must I spend years learning to speak, as I did when I was a child, before learning to read? I don't see the sense of that. Thank you very much for coming. But I'll be happier with another sort of teacher."

It should be evident that Mr. Jourdain was also descended from the sensible Madame Jourdain who did not share the folly of the illustrious *bourgeois gentilhomme*.

When his fourth teacher, the eclecticist, arrived, Mr. Jourdain asked him for a frank statement of what he planned to teach and how he planned to teach it. "I don't want to waste another year on 'a MWA' and 'roBER.' For a long time," he admitted, "I thought that 'a MWA' was a French radio station and that 'roBER' meant 'robber.' And as for *mæsjo* and similar hieroglyphics, I am told that very few people in France write like that. After all, I don't expect to take a course in linguistics or phonetics at the Sorbonne. Now tell me what you think is the best method for learning French."

"There is no best method," said the eclecticist. "Suppose some one asked you what is the best way to get from one place to another. You would want to know who the person was, where he was and where he wanted to go, wouldn't you? Otherwise you couldn't advise him how to travel—whether on foot, by train, by boat, by car or by plane. It would all depend on conditions of time and terrain. So in language-learning. It makes a great difference whether the learner is a child, an adolescent or an adult; whether he is in grammar school, high school or college. In choosing a method, a teacher must consider the size of his class, the length and frequency of meetings, the previous language experience of the students and above all the objectives of the course."

"Why do you say 'objectives' in the plural? Doesn't everyone who studies French want to learn French?"

"It's not so simple as that. Some students want only to be able to carry on a conversation with a French-speaking person. They will be satisfied if they can order a meal in a restaurant, engage a room in a hotel, purchase a railroad ticket, ask directions when traveling by automobile or buy perfume and silk stockings to send back to the United States. Others hope that they will be able to understand radio broadcasts from Paris. Still others plan to be interpreters or translators. There are those who will have to be able to write commercial letters for exporting and importing firms. Many will, I hope, study French literature; they will have to read French so well that they can appreciate the harmony of Racine's verse and—begging your pardon—the comic verve of Molière. As long ago as 1898, a Committee of Twelve affirmed that the four main objectives of language learning are to read, to write, to speak and to understand a foreign language. Since then many other objectives have been proposed. You can find a dozen or a score if you will read the modern language periodicals or the textbooks in methodology. Nowadays a fifth objective is very prominent in all discussions of method—to learn through the foreign language about the civilization of a foreign country."

"Suppose I wanted to learn only to converse in French?"

"A child learns a language largely through his ears. A college student or a man like yourself has for a long time been learning through his eyes, also, from the printed page. An exclusively oral method may be splendid for a child. But for older persons, why disregard the obvious fact that they learn through ears and eyes? An oral approach and a reading approach are not necessarily in opposition to each other. They can supplement each other. A student can learn vocabulary from a book and use it orally."

"I have heard a lot about the Army method. Why don't we use it, you and I? Why doesn't every teacher use it?"

"The objectives and the conditions both were greatly different from those of civilian classes. The Army had a limited objective for its students. It intended to send them as soon as possible to a liberated foreign country to govern the country until a permanent government could take over. The officers in charge of the program did not have the slightest idea that their students ought to be able some day to study French literature. A special committee which investigated the ASTP schools' reports that 'those interviewed agreed that certain objectives of ASTP language training, admittedly designed to fill practical military needs, would naturally be abandoned, and they reaffirmed their belief that the understanding and appreciation of foreign cultures is a primary aim of language study in a

¹ "A Survey of Language Classes in the Army Specialized Training Program." The Report of a Special Committee. Prepared for The Commission on Trends in Education of The Modern Language Association of America.

liberal education.' The Army's students were a highly selected group; they were admitted to the ASTP only if they had demonstrated language ability. Many of them were already fluent in one foreign language. Most of their time was devoted to language-learning. They were not studying three or four other courses of equal importance."

"Is there no way," asked Mr. Jourdain, "in which civilians can profit by the Army method?"

"We just don't know. A great deal of experimenting must be done to determine what features of the Army technique can be utilized in quite different circumstances. The special committee, to be sure, recommends the adoption by schools and colleges of an intensive plan of language instruction. They favor the oral approach. But it is one thing to recommend, another to carry out. I could recommend that every high school student who wanted to study French should spend a year in France. But how many could do it? Similarly, how many schools and colleges will be able to put into practice the following elements of the intensive plan? (1) 'a large number of contact hours per week'; (2) 'very small classes (ten students or less)'; (3) 'the use of native, or completely bilingual, speakers for drill work'; (4) 'teachers who really speak the foreign language.' The committee mentions 'the increased cost of instruction and the shortage of adequately prepared teachers.' 'It is not necessarily a reflection upon foreign language teachers,' the report continues, 'that many of them do not command the spoken language sufficiently well to enable them to employ an oral approach. . . . If the intensified language program, with its use of the oral approach, is to succeed, it cannot be too strongly impressed on school administrators that they must insist on teachers who are qualified.'"

"Why aren't teachers qualified?"

"To be well qualified for oral language teaching, one should speak a foreign language as well as one does English. This skill can rarely be acquired without residence in a foreign country. About one secondary school language teacher in three has lived abroad. At least, that was true ten years ago;² during the war few if any went to Europe. The proportion now must be even lower. We must remember that many language teachers have to teach more than one language besides such subjects as history and English. To use successfully the Army method, many a high school teacher would have to be fluent in English, French and Spanish. You can't expect teachers to spend many years and thousands of dollars in order to gain employment at present high school salaries. No matter what the school administrators may want, they will not be able to get for their language teaching men or women whose preparation has cost three or four times that of teachers of other subjects. Colleges may be a bit more fortunate, though college salaries

² Cf. "The Training of Language Teachers in the Secondary Schools of New Hampshire." *The Modern Language Journal*, XIX, 6 (March, 1935).

are by no means wonderful. But I have heard of an Army unit that had fifteen instructors for one hundred students. What college can afford to duplicate that situation?"

"By the way, I meant to ask you why you call yourself an eclecticist."

"I try to utilize the best features of all methods, recognizing that in teaching a class I have before me a certain number of individuals with particular objectives and that in the class as a whole all the important objectives are represented. It's fun to speak a foreign language, whether one is going abroad right away or not. I spend time on oral drills and pay attention to 'a correct accent.' I hope my students will pronounce French better than some radio news commentators! My students have acquired the habit of learning from a printed page; I have them use a textbook. They have some power of rational analysis; they can understand the value of grammar. I do not expect that many of my students will have occasion to write French after leaving my classes unless they take an advanced composition course, although there are opportunities to correspond with young people abroad and a few may go into firms that do business with foreign countries. In any case, writing things down helps one to remember them. Don't people take notes while listening to lectures and while reading books? We read from the very beginning—first the sentences and paragraphs in the textbook, then simple, graded readers, later more difficult books in authentic French. Through this reading they learn a great deal about the culture of France. I doubt if one student out of ten will go abroad soon enough to make use of whatever oral command of the language he may acquire; oral ability fades away quickly with disuse. Reading ability is more lasting. For all students there are available in the libraries of the United States enough foreign language books to supply them with reading material for the rest of their lives."

"One of my other teachers said that if one learns to speak a foreign language, he will be able to read it, too. Why not concentrate on the speaking and let the reading take care of itself?"

"I'll answer your question with another one. Aren't there many persons who can speak a language without being able to read it? We call them illiterates."

"Well, I can neither speak French nor read French. Let's have our first lesson. What do you start with?"

"The definite article. . . ."

"You start with *le, la, les*? Written the way the French people themselves write them? You're the teacher for me!"

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Improved Communication for World Security¹

THE chief instrument of education is and always has been communication. Without communication children grow up almost as inarticulate and brutish as other mammals. This has been fairly well demonstrated by cases where association of children with other human beings has been very limited. The educational need for communication processes and tools has therefore been recognized for a long time.

Since men first carried on education as a consciously-directed enterprise, they have probably seen that attainment of a certain level of communication skills was required to move the individual effectively into the small group of family or village. At some later time in their development, they came to recognize that another and higher level of communication was required to move the small group effectively into the larger group of clan, tribe, state or nation. Today, all over the world, they are beginning to search for those communication facts and skills which will help move states and nations into effective membership in a world society.

What are some educational phases of the search for improved means of communication, with particular regard to the objective of securing and maintaining world peace and security?

The primitive savage saw that a child had to be directed, rewarded, admonished, punished, practiced in skills and given patterns of socially approved behavior by words, gestures, demonstrations, symbols, signs and other means of communication. The child could and often did learn all by himself, but what he learned alone was infinitesimal beside what he could learn with others and it was furthermore less likely to be socially desirable.

From primitive societies to modern national systems, therefore, education has been increasingly tied to communication skills, devices and patterns. The relationship has been so close, indeed, that whole structures of education have been organized around particular instruments of communication, and communication vehicles have become again and again the actual objectives of elaborate systems of schooling.

The Chinese, for example, developed ideographic writing as an instrument for communication among groups with different spoken languages. This writing was and is a truly international means of communication in that it transmits ideas in any language which the writer or any reader happens to know. Thus the ideograph for *horse* means *cheval*, *caballo*, *pferd*,

¹ This article, with some changes, is the text of the address given by Dean Benjamin before the Central States Modern Language Teachers Association on May 10, 1947. *Ed.'s note.*

sunka wakan or any other word for that animal which any people in the world wish to employ, without any regard whatsoever to differences among the languages. "Chinese" writing is not Chinese at all in the sense that it conveys the description of any Chinese speech. It is Chinese only because the Chinese have developed and used it.

The ideographic writing was extremely useful to a people who were trying to have peace and security in an association of groups with widely varying languages. It was an indispensable instrument in particular to the leaders of this association of peoples. It was a great aid to those who had to direct the economy, administer the law and organize the defense of the Empire.

It was not because the Chinese were just peculiar, therefore, that they developed the system of long study of classical literature in the ideographic writing as a preparation for the imperial civil service. It was because, having discovered and developed a valuable communication instrument for holding varied groups of people together, they had a practical need for educating leaders in the use of that instrument.

Of course, as is well known, the Chinese stressed this particular communication instrument until the process became the goal of education. Even in the activity of reading and writing the ideographic symbols, form and technique assumed greater and greater importance over the dwindling values of content and purpose in communication until the whole system of Chinese education as viewed by foreign eyes was startling in its sterility, formalism and uselessness. What had once been an educational instrument of great sweep and power for people seeking security in larger and larger groups had been reduced to a burlesque of learning by educators, who having forgotten their goals, redoubled their efforts in each succeeding generation.

The tendency of a particular communication instrument to be fastened upon schools and to become the objective rather than the tool of education has been demonstrated in many parts of the world other than China. Over a period of twenty-five centuries, European education passed from the Athenian schools of classical antiquity, where reading was much less important than songs, recitations, dialogues and athletic games, to schools in the nineteenth century where the study of printed books was the all-dominant feature of instruction. Most of the bookish schools of the world today have hardly yet recognized the development of the radio, the phonograph and the motion picture. Many of them are totally unprepared to use the more recent development of television and the recording of language by such methods as magnetizing a wire or the iron oxide surface of a plastic ribbon which can be played back without needle, contact or wear. With the employment of such devices, the relative importance of printed books in education may well decline.

To move local and national groups into improved relationships with one another, these and other new, direct and fast means of communication are available. The most effective education for world security will test and employ every possible instrument of communication without falling into the ancient pedagogical pit of believing that one method or means of conveying thought has of itself more educational force than some other device or instrument. There is nothing in a "comic" strip which makes it inherently a poorer instrument than a book for teaching history, geography, morals, manners or international understanding. What book? What kind of comic strip? These are the important educational decisions, rather than convictions that books are educational and comic strips are not, that a library is always a university of knowledge and a movie theater is always merely a place of entertainment and that in general any one form of communication has higher educational values in itself than does any other form of communication.

The greatest world educational need in the field of communication, however, is one of which men have been aware for many centuries. It is the need, not for learning how to transmit ideas by new mechanical devices but for education in the improvement of language itself as a means of world communication.

The notion of a "universal" language is of course very old. Both practical men of affairs and impractical visionaries have been attracted for centuries to the idea of developing a common tongue for purposes of improved understanding among cooperating groups. The idea, furthermore, contrary to popular opinion, has been successfully worked out in a number of instances. When it has been successful, relatively large numbers of people, acting under the spur of great historical movements, have made and spread the "universal" language. English, Arabic, Greek, Latin, Spanish, French, Russian, Turkish, Persian and other tongues in certain times and places have become world languages in their respective "worlds." They have been taught and learned as second languages for purposes of commerce, travel, diplomacy, war, social ornamentation and for all the other uses to which people put a language that crosses national boundaries. Such languages have often risen from the status of second languages to first languages, supplanting the original native tongues among peoples who discovered the advantage of adopting them.

These facts are mentioned here because there seems today to be an unusual amount of pessimism abroad in the world concerning the possibility of developing a second language for all the world so that all men could talk to one another directly as they can see one another by motion pictures. This pessimism is not entirely confined to people untrained in language. To every suggestion for the development of a second language these pessimists cry, "Impractical! It can't be done! Visionary!" The peoples of England

once made such a language and then made it into a first language of such relative simplicity of grammar, wealth of vocabulary, strength, vitality and flexibility that today in spite of its almost incredible system of spelling it probably is the single most popular choice of half the population of the world for a universal language.

On the other side of the picture, there is a tendency for all spoken languages to split into dialects and then into separate languages. In fairly recent times, for example, in spite of common literatures, Dutch has become Netherlands Dutch, Flemish and Afrikaans; Norse has moved away from Danish and is now dividing itself into Riksmål and Landsmål; Canadian and Parisian French have drawn apart; and American and European forms of English, Portuguese and Spanish have become differentiated. At the same time, within the last twenty years particularly, the new mechanical forms of recording and transmitting oral speech have probably tended to slow up, if indeed not to block entirely, some of these processes of differentiation.

It is a principle in comparative education that the source of an understanding of the educational needs of a people is a careful examination of the people's actual and desired activities. In judging the worth of any system of education, this is the principle which is most likely to be overlooked. It is easy for an educational observer to talk of curricula, programs, organization, administration and techniques of schools without paying any real attention to the activities of the people.

Even the most casual examination of the activities of the peoples of the world leads to the conclusion that one of the greatest of all educational needs today is the need for command of a language or of languages which are international in use. Obviously if there could be one of these languages agreed upon for everybody in the world, the educational advantages of that development in teaching world cooperation would be very great. At the same time, since agreement upon one language may not be possible right now, agreement upon two, three or four world languages is certainly very desirable.

At the same time, all people in the world need mother tongues or home languages. They need such languages as distinct and local in vocabulary, construction and pronunciation as any group, however small, may desire. That need is present with all of us. It is why some of the Norwegians have been developing *Landsmål*; it is why most Americans commonly say *schedule* and *again* though all the weight of Oxford may be thrown in favor of *shedule* and *agayne*. They just want to talk a home talk, and in this respect they are like the speakers of Bantu, Basque, Breton, Estonian, Frisian, Galician, Lettish, Maltese, Manx, Romani, Ruthenian, Tagalog, Welsh or Wend, as well as of any of the great languages of contemporary times.

It seems clear, therefore, that everybody needs to learn and use at least two languages, one a "universal" language for general communication, the other a home language for local communication.

There was a time in Europe when this situation was approached. Latin was the universal language. It was taught in all the schools. University students and professors could transfer from Salamanca to Bologna, Paris, Oxford, Uppsala, Heidelberg or Prague with no linguistic difficulty. Church services and law suits were conducted in Latin everywhere. Scholars from the tiniest countries with the least known home languages published their works and communicated with their fellows in other countries as easily as those whose vernaculars were French or Italian. Comenius could be a world figure in education, though his native tongue was a minor language, because he could use Latin and everybody with any appreciable schooling knew Latin. What would a Comenius do today? He would have to decide to learn to write Russian, English, German, Spanish or French, and whatever language he might select would automatically leave out of his group of readers a large number of scholars who did not know that language.

It is a common observation today that the world is smaller than it ever was before. In many respects, however, it is bigger today and its parts are more isolated from one another than in the days of Comenius. This increasing nationalistic fragmentation of the world's cultures is fundamentally a function of the increasing fear and insecurity of the peoples of the world.

From the standpoint of world security alone, the problem of teaching a second language for universal use is one of the most pressing problems of our time. The greatest obstacles in the way of selecting and teaching the second language or languages are not technical problems relating to the difficulties or the instructional methods of teaching the language. They are not primarily technical problems facing the readers of this journal as language teachers. They are rather problems of social relationships facing all educated men and women as citizens and as students of international relations. They include the problems of political jealousy, racial antagonism, religious difference and linguistic loyalty. Perhaps they can best be summed up by the simple observation that every man in the world would like to have a universal language adopted for the second language of every other person in the world, provided that the world's language to be adopted were his own native language.

It was for this reason that various languages have been made up specifically to meet special inter-groups needs, like the *lingua franca* of the Crusades, the Chinook jargon of the Northwest American coast, and the various modern "artificial" languages. It is unnecessary here to review the history of such efforts to provide special languages for this special purpose. It is enough to point out that popular opinion on this matter is singularly ill-informed. Language teachers know that only a few languages in this

special class are "artificial" languages. Most of them, as Tagalog, for example, have been put into a position of use for special inter-group needs by political action of certain ruling authorities in a national situation.

The Philippines in 1937, anticipating their coming independence, adopted Tagalog as the basis of their national language. This was done by a ruling political majority in spite of the fact that to a large number of the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands, Tagalog was and remains a foreign tongue and in spite of the further fact that a very high percentage of Filipinos under the age of fifty have a considerable knowledge of English to use as a second language of world importance. Many of those over fifty, of course, have a similar knowledge of another great world language, Spanish. In spite of the obvious advantage of adopting either Spanish or English as the inter-group language for use among the Filipinos with their many and widely varying types of home languages, the republic adopted the chief of these home languages as its national tongue.

Thus we have in the new republic of the Philippines a very interesting and illuminating test of the kind of attempt to put a language into an inter-group position which has often been tried in the past in varying circumstances and which has sometimes succeeded and more often failed.

If the Filipinos succeed in making Tagalog a truly national language, they will still be faced with the necessity of learning English or one of the other world languages.

The new United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization has one of its greatest opportunities and one of its greatest responsibilities in this field of developing language for international uses. The present writer has argued elsewhere that UNESCO should propose, establish and operate a university of the United Nations on the highest level of research and graduate study in all those areas which are of particular international use and significance.² He will not repeat this argument here but will merely say that an Institute of Linguistics should be a chief part of the University of the United Nations. In such an institute, with the help and guidance of the various world associations of language scholars, the improvement and development of a second language or languages for international use could be carried on with an impartiality and authority hardly possible to private or national organizations. Such a language might have some chance, for example, of being adopted by the Philippines as the "international" language for their many scattered islands and their various groups of people speaking the widely separated home languages. Such a language might well come in time to solve the basic language difficulties of the Chinese, difficulties which are hardly appreciated by most of the rest of the world. Such a language might well be welcomed by a country like Eire, where a sensitive people have to use a second language which has

² Benjamin, Harold, *Under Their Own Command*, pp. 64-67. Macmillan, New York, 1947.

social and political bitternesses so closely tied to it as to make its use distasteful.

I do not think that a solution of the world language problem will be made easily but I think it will be made, and I know it would be made much more rapidly if more experts in the field of language would work on the task. A process is probably already under way whereby the world is developing four or five chief international languages. It is possible that this same process will tend to reduce the number of chief languages in the next fifty years. It is possible that by the end of this century two or three main languages will be taught as second languages throughout the world. What those languages will be can be much more accurately predicted by experts than by the present writer. How fast this change will be made and how intelligently it will be directed toward conditions leading to the improvement of world security will depend more largely than is commonly recognized upon the imaginative support and the detailed labor that scholars in the field of language are willing to supply.

HAROLD BENJAMIN

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SPEAKING OF COMMUNICATION—Alice Keith, Director of the National Academy of Broadcasting, Inc., advises people interested in radio work to study seriously at least two languages. A flair for speaking extemporaneously is not sufficient background for handling a script containing foreign musical and geographical terms. Students of the Academy are required to study the pronunciation of Italian, Spanish, French, German and Russian.

Aragon's "*Arma virumque cano*"¹

THE publication of Louis Aragon's poems written during the German occupation in the two collections, *Les yeux d'Elsa* and *La Diane française*,² constituted a "literary event," and the critical discussion of poetic technique contained in them is of the first importance in understanding the new trend in French verse.

I suppose nothing was ever more effective, in its own way, than Boileau's campaign to kill lyric poetry in France. It was so effective that for nearly two hundred years true poetry was dead. Just cast your mind back over the period between 1650 and 1850 and examine verse with the jaundiced eye of an unprejudiced critic. What do you find?—didactic verse, "philosophical" verse, narrative verse. Even in Musset and Hugo the true lyric spirit is all too often buried under an avalanche of pseudo-philosophical verbosity. People began to believe that the French no more had "*la tête lyrique*" than they possessed "*la tête épique*."

When Boileau wrote "*le vrai seul est aimable*" and " *aimez donc la raison*," he was making an appeal to the least lyric and the least dramatic side of human nature. Inspired by that most bourgeois of writers Quintus Horatius Flaccus, he gave the coup de grâce to the lyric impulse. When Boileau spoke of "*la raison*," he meant by this word a narrow, transient and philosophically indefensible trait of the French bourgeoisie and upper class of the late seventeenth century: an extremely limited discipline, a philosophical technique of making everything clear by leaving out all the difficulties, as Faguet says of Voltaire. It ignored the life of the spirit and the life of the soul. It is amazing to think that Boileau was to impose this point of view for so many years and that as late as 1850 that greatest and most sensitive of critics, Sainte-Beuve, should place Horace and Boileau together on the highest peak of Parnassus.

Is it only with Baudelaire that the lyric genius begins to come into its own and only with Rimbaud that it becomes vocal and coherent. Do not be deceived by Verlaine's *Art poétique*. He was not a thinker nor an aesthete; he was a singer; he had no coherent philosophy, no coherent theory of art. He sang as a bird sings—involuntarily. Nevertheless his famous lines "*De la musique avant toute chose*" and "*Prends l'éloquence et tords lui son cou*" are adumbrations.

Since Rimbaud's time there have been numerous *Artes poeticae*. Every poet has felt it incumbent upon him to tell something of his method, and

¹ This paper was given before the Indiana Branch of the AATF as an introduction to the reading of several of Aragon's poems.

² *Les yeux d'Elsa*, Editions Pierre Seghers, Paris, 1945. *La Diane française*, Editions Pierre Seghers, Paris, 1946.

all have been logical—if not sensible—within their limits. But there is a thread which we can follow through this maze, an idea which all have in common. To state it boldly, this concept is that poetry is not prose, it is a different art, for different purposes. Poetry cannot be descriptive or philosophical or didactic or narrative or musical—it can only be poetry, it must be "*la poésie pure*." When we have uttered these words, when we have grasped their meaning and recognized its truth, we have understood the significance of the poetic revolution of the last fifty years—a revolution which has produced Rimbaud, Mallarmé and Valéry, as well as the younger generation of poets who cut their teeth on the radical doctrines of the 1920's and who have become the recognized singers of contemporary France.

It would be impossible in so short a paper, and superfluous in any case, to attempt to explain the technical, philosophical and aesthetic aspects of this revolution. One would have to go into epistemology and mystical doctrines. There have been, of course, many books written on the subject, and the controversy between l'Abbé Brémond and Paul Valéry on "*la poésie pure*" is notorious. But one thing is certain: the verse written on the new formulas is difficult to understand by the ordinary run of intelligent readers. The poet insists that he is the master of words not their servant, and it is the reader's task to find out what he means. Rimbaud's *Bateau Ivre* and Valéry's *Cimetière marin* demand an extensive commentary for their comprehension. Aragon's contribution in his two new volumes is that he tries to make "*la poésie pure*" comprehensible. More of this later.

I will not undertake to describe to you the career and life of Louis Aragon. That is the type of study you can find in any textbook. He has been in the advance guard of artistic production. He took part in the Cubist movement; he was one of the foremost Dadaists, active in the little band of artistic radicals who found the world, twenty-five years ago, cruel, heartless, meaningless and who set out to destroy whatever might be meaningful by ridiculing it.

When Dada died a natural and well-deserved death, the Surréalistes began their interesting, sincere and fertile attempts to get at man's subconscious, and Aragon joined forces with André Breton and Paul Eluard.

One cannot emphasize too greatly the importance of surrealist theory in the aesthetics of contemporary French verse. If "poetry" is to be "pure," it must come from the subconscious depths of man's being—from those depths in which he is in contact with the eternal, with things greater and nobler than himself. The surrealists say that these impulses, these feelings, these desires of human beings have been overlaid with a conventional pattern of thinking, with a rigid social code, with an aesthetic code which has prevented most poets from ever reaching that sublime intimacy with the eternal which is truth. Pure poetry is the result of the poet's contact with the infinite.

André Breton and Paul Eluard tried to make contact with the subconscious and produced several volumes of automatic writing; Aragon wrote verse and prose on the same basic idea. But the theory was better than the practice. Little of the poetry produced between 1920 and 1940 remains in high esteem. Aragon sums it up in a sentence: "a bad poem written with surrealist technique is still a bad poem."

The experiences during the German occupation changed many things in France. Among others Aragon was cured of his radical leftist political tendencies, and as one of the foremost patriots aspired to be the lyrical voice of France.

"Mon souci"—he writes in the preface to *Les yeux d'Elsa*—"est plus grand que celui qu'on me prête; et si loin de mon but que je sois, j'ai cherché, dans les conditions dramatiques de la poésie et du monde modernes, à donner corps à cette voix errante, à incarner la poésie française dans l'immense chair française martyrisée."

"Si j'ai cherché dans le langage de la poésie populaire, des chansons anciennes, quelques lueurs que la poésie savante ne donne pas, c'était pour en faire un profit tout métaphorique; et nullement pour recommencer le folklore, qui ne peut se constituer sur ordre ou de propos délibéré.

"De tous temps, les poètes ont dit: 'Je chante . . .', et au sens où on veut me le faire dire, ils ne chantaient pas du tout. C'est au sens de Virgile que je dis 'je chante' quand je le dis.

Arma virumque cano . . .

"'Je chante les armes et l'homme . . .' ainsi commence l'*Enéide*, ainsi devrait commencer toute poésie. J'ai un peu écrit et publié ce livre pour dissiper la confusion pleine de bienveillance qu'on avait entretenue autour du *Crève-Coeur*. 'Je chante l'homme et ses armes . . .' et en ce sens oui, je chante, et je suis prêt à reprendre pour notre temps et mon pays ce programme par quoi débute l'épopée romaine, et je n'ai forgé mon langage pour rien d'autre, de longue date, pour rien d'autre préparé cet instrument chantant . . . Je chante l'homme et ses armes, et vous qui trouvez que je les chante mal, je vous en prie, chantez-les mieux! Un grand tournoi est ouvert, où je suis prêt à couronner le vainqueur, car, dans la poésie française, le vainqueur, c'est toujours la France. Je chante l'homme et ses armes, c'est plus que jamais le moment, et il est bien inutile aujourd'hui de se demander comme, avec mes amis d'alors, je jouais le tour aux autres de le leur demander il y a vingt ans: pourquoi écrivez-vous? Ma réponse, elle est dans Virgile. Et mon chant ne se peut refuser d'être; parce qu'il est une arme lui aussi pour l'homme désarmé, parce qu'il est l'homme même, dont la raison d'être est la vie. Je chante parce que l'orage n'est pas assez fort pour couvrir mon chant, et que quoi que demain l'on fasse, on pourra m'ôter cette vie, mais on n'éteindra pas mon chant."³

There are two volumes of verse which appeared in 1945 and 1946, called *Les yeux d'Elsa* and *La Diane française*, showing a new Aragon who has become a true singer of France, who has gone for inspiration back to the

³ *Les yeux d'Elsa*, pp. 27-30, passim.

Middle Ages and the naive lyricism of the "Song of Roland." In one of his prefaces he quotes Stendhal, who writes in his *Racine et Shakespeare* that the poetry of Delille might have appealed to the élite of the ancient regime but would not appeal to men who had gone through the retreat from Moscow. Aragon makes this apply to the poetry of Valéry, Mallarmé and many others of the contemporary period. The esoteric intellectualism of Valéry is too far from reality to satisfy a man who has gone through the evacuation at Dunkirk or survived the attacks on the Normandy beach-head or lived through the years of the German occupation. Aragon feels that poetry must appeal to fundamental human emotions, and these emotions must be fundamentally in contact with the infinite, with God.

To the technician of French verse the introduction to *Les yeux d'Elsa* is of the highest interest as are the poems which exemplify his revolutionary ideas on rime and rhythm. Rime, according to Aragon, is all-important in French verse. "*L'histoire du vers français débute où apparaît la rime*," but this essential beauty has become so distorted by the artificial restrictions of classical tradition that the poet is really crippled. Aragon returns, like the *chansonniers*, to "*les rimes à l'oreille*" and one is astounded at the beauty and flexibility of the result. Read "*La nuit de mai*" in this collection and his discussion of this poem. In the short lyric he calls "*C*" is exemplified the revolution in riming.

J'ai traversé les ponts de Cé
C'est là que tout a commencé.

Une chanson des temps passés
Parle d'un chevalier blessé

D'une rose sur la chaussée
Et d'un corsage delacé

Du château d'un duc insensé
Et des cygnes dans les fossés

De la prairie où vient danser
Une éternelle fiancée

Et j'ai bu comme un lait glacé
Le long lai des gloires faussées

La Loire emporte mes pensées
Avec les voitures versées

Et les armes désamorçées
Et les larmes mal effacées

O ma France o ma délaissée
J'ai traversé les ponts de Cé

Not only rime but rhythm also is the subject for fascinating experimentation. Aragon, like Eluard, has no punctuation, feeling that a poem should "*porter en elle deux chants suivant l'humeur du lecteur*." Such is the *Nuit de mai*. For a unique experiment in waltz rhythm "*Elsa-valse*" imitates the triple time of the dance. Here is one stanza from it.

Quelle valse inconnue entraînant et magique
M'emporte malgré moi comme une folle idée
Je sens fuir sous mes pieds cette époque tragique
Elsa quelle est cette musique
Ce n'est plus moi qui parle et mes pas sont guidés

Cette valse	est un vin	qui ressemble	au Saumur
Cette valse	est le vin	que j'ai bu	dans tes bras
Tes cheveux	en sont l'or	et mes vers	s'en émurent
	Valsons-la	comme on saute un mur	
Ton nom s'y	murmure	Elsa valse	et valsera
La jeunesse	y pétille	ou nos jours	étants courts
A Montmartre	on allait	oublier	qu'on pleura
Notre nuit	a perdu	ce secret	du faux-jour
	Mais a-t-elle	oublié l'amour	
L'amour est si lourd		Elsa valse	et valsera

Interesting and fruitful are Aragon's ideas on prosody and their exemplification in his verses, which become in his hands comprehensible, flexible, expert, athletic in their directness and succinctness. But the innovations are intended only to free poetry from the incubus of pedantic, often completely artificial rules, not at all to make it "easy." "*La liberté est une chose sacrée, j'ai horreur de la licence. Cela est vrai aussi dans la poésie,*" he writes.

I believe that Aragon, in his poems written during the war years, had three things in mind: first, to liberalize versification; second, to make poetry accessible to everyone by avoiding the esoteric difficulties of the more highly intellectualized writers; and third, to speak for France. Here is his *Marche française* from *La Diane française*.

Marche française

Quand il arriva la saison
Des trahisons et des prisons

Quand les fontaines se troublèrent
Les larmes seules furent claires

On entendait des cris déments
Des boniments des reniements

Des hommes verts et des vautours
Vinrent obscurcir notre jour

Ils nous dirent Vous aurez faim
Dans la main nous prirent le pain

Ils nous dirent Jetez vos livres
Un chien n'a que son maître à suivre

Ils nous dirent Vous aurez froid
Et mirent le pays en croix

Ils nous dirent Les yeux à terre
Il faut obéir et se taire

Ils nous dirent Tous à genoux
Les plus forts s'en iront chez nous

Ils ont jeté les uns aux bagnes
Pris les autres en Allemagne
Mais ils comptaient sans Pierre et Jean
La colère et les jeunes gens
Mais ils comptaient sans ceux qui prirent
Le parti de vivre ou mourir
Comme le vent dans les cheveux
Comme la flamme sans le feu
Croisés non pour une aventure
Une lointaine sépulture
Mais pour le pays envahi
Contre l'envahisseur haï
Chassons chassons nos nouveaux maîtres
Les pillards les tueurs les traîtres
Le bon grain du mauvais se trie
Il faut mériter sa patrie
Chaque jardin chaque ruelle
Arrachés à des mains cruelles
Chaque silo chaque verger
Repris aux mains des étrangers
Chaque colline et chaque combe
Chaque demeure et chaque tombe
Chaque mare et ses alevins
Chaque noisette d'un ravin
Chaque mont chaque promontoire
Les prés sanglants de notre histoire
Et le ciel immense et clément
Sans nuage et sans Allemand
Il faut libérer ce qu'on aime
Soi-même soi-même soi-même

My French friends tell me that just after the American landing in Normandy, during the hectic days of the liberation, the poems of Louis Aragon were read frequently over the radio. This is as it should be. Lau-tréaumont writes "*La poésie doit être faite par tous. Non par un.*" And in these verses of Aragon, written during the bitter years of the occupation, we hear the voice of a people.

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Russian Word Count

IT seems fair to say that a very noteworthy contribution to the field of teaching modern languages in this country in the last two decades has been the compilation of frequency vocabulary, idiom and syntax lists. This is true particularly in the area of preparation of adequate study materials (textbooks and grammars alike). Word frequency studies have been made by Henmon¹ and Vander Beke² in French, by Buchanan² in Spanish and by Morgan² in German and more recently by Brown, Carr and Shane³ in Brazilian-Portuguese. Hauch has investigated the area of idiom study in German, Keniston in Spanish and Cheydleur⁴ in French. Syntax counts have been undertaken in French by Clark and Poston⁵ and in Spanish by Keniston.⁶ That a large amount of useful information pertinent to the preparation of adequate textbooks and grammars has been compiled is obvious to the modern language teacher of today.

Thus, instead of the previous hit and miss selection of words to be taught—often based on the subjective opinion of the teacher or textbook writer—vocabulary lists have been set up, based on the objective and scientific principle of selection of words occurring most frequently in a large body of printed material drawn from a number of varied sources—books, magazines and newspapers. Instead of asking a student to memorize large numbers of long paradigms, plus numerous exceptions, some of which were extremely unlikely to occur in any text, the teacher can now give the student elements of grammar and syntax based on actual frequency. In short, a student of any modern language in America today, be it French, German,

¹ Henmon, V. A. C., *A French Word Book*. University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin, No. 3, September, 1924.

² Vander Beke, G. E., *French Word Book*; Morgan, B. Q., *German Frequency Word Book*; Buchanan, M. A., *Graded Spanish Word Book*. Vols. XV, IX and III of "Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages." The Macmillan Company (with the exception of III, which was published by the University of Toronto Press).

³ Brown, Charles B., Carr, Wesley M., and Shane, Milton L.; *A Graded Word Book of Brazilian Portuguese*. (Issued by the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education.) F. S. Crofts and Company, New York, 1945.

⁴ Hauch, Edward F., *German Idiom Lists*; Keniston, Hayward, *Spanish Idiom List*; Cheydleur, F. D., *French Idiom List*. Vols. X, XV and XVI of the "Publications of the American and Canadian Committees on Modern Languages." The Macmillan Company.

⁵ Clark, Richard E. and Poston, Lawrence, *French Syntax List*. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1943.

⁶ Keniston, Hayward, *Spanish Syntax List*. (Issued by the Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education.) Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1937

Spanish or Brazilian-Portuguese or even a classical tongue like Latin,⁷ is sure of orderly and certain progress, at least for the first two years of college study.

Even the proponents of the growing trend towards the emphasis upon the study of the oral aspect of language have not neglected the so patiently accumulated fruits of labor of the frequency studies. One of the writers of the *Spoken* series of foreign language texts for the ASTP during the war, which was recently published jointly by Henry Holt and Company and the American Council of Learned Societies, has told me that during the course of preparation of his text he had the frequency list on the wall before him and that he introduced as many words from that list into the textbook as he possibly could. Even a cursory comparison of the textbooks in the above series with the several frequency lists reveals a rather high degree of correlation between the two.

It is safe to state that the teachers of Russian in this country, exceedingly gratified as they are by the spread of interest in the language, are fully aware of their responsibility towards development of better teaching materials, adapted particularly to the needs of average American college and high school students. Anyone in the profession who has taught the first two years of college Russian in this country is familiar with the students' complaints concerning the excessive amounts of words which have to be looked up in preparation for the lessons. One elementary reader designed for first year college Russian has a vocabulary of approximately four thousand words for eighty pages of text. To overcome this obvious fault textbooks have appeared recently which are somewhat more economical in the introduction of vocabulary. Doubtless, a good many of the words used by recent Russian textbook writers are important words—words which have been selected carefully on basis of mature and deliberate judgment. It is also certain that a good many of the words selected by recent textbook writers will also have a high frequency on the projected Russian word count list, which alone will furnish an objective and scientific measure of word grading.

Fully cognizant of the importance of a Russian word count list as an aid to the teaching of Russian in this country, the American Association of Teachers of Slavic and East European Languages (AATSEEL) at its 1946 meeting in Chicago appointed a Russian Word Count Committee, charged with the carrying out of this project, selecting the writer as chairman. Professors Berthold C. Friedl, of the University of Miami, and Agnes Jacques, of Roosevelt College, have offered to help on this committee. Another member of AATSEEL who had promised to aid this group in an advisory capacity was the recently deceased Professor Samuel Cross, of

⁷ Diederich, Paul Bernard, *The Frequency of Latin Words and Their Endings*. Columbia University Ph.D. dissertation. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Illinois.

Harvard University, whose untimely death was a great loss to the Slavic field generally. Wayne University has aided in this undertaking by a research grant in the form of equipment, materials, quarters and the time of student assistants. A request for the inclusion of a research grant-in-aid for the Russian word count in Wayne University's budget for the academic year 1947-48 has also been granted.

The objective of the Russian word count is to determine the frequency of occurrence of vocabulary in Russian printed material, starting with the second quarter of the nineteenth century and including the modern Soviet period. It is planned to confine the word count to prose material of general content and thus to include short stories, novels, general periodicals and plays, and to arrange the material in such a manner that the data can be utilized for several additional purposes, such as the determination of the time of occurrence of words within the several periods of Russian literature. Thus the count will indicate exactly when a given Russian word entered the literary Russian language as well as the extent of penetration of colloquial Russian into contemporary Soviet prose.

Since it is proposed to concentrate heavily on modern Russian, approximately thirty per cent of the vocabulary will be chosen from sources dating from 1830-1900, about twenty per cent from 1900-1918 and fully fifty per cent from 1918 to date. Likewise, in view of the currently growing trend of emphasis upon the spoken word in modern foreign language teaching, the material to be counted will include a considerable amount of dialogue. It should be remembered, however, that a good many students in American colleges today are still studying a foreign language for the purpose of obtaining a reading knowledge of its general and scientific literature.

At present detailed procedure for the word count is in the process of being worked out, and check sheets for tabulating purposes are being prepared. The first task of a word count is to set up a list of words of unquestionably highest frequency—so high that they need not be included in the count—based partly upon the results of similar word counts in the other languages, partly upon other pertinent considerations. Care has been taken, however, to support the choice by a trial check of at least ten thousand running words from a single source. Several scores of such high frequency words have already been selected. The ultimate number of these high frequency words will probably run into the vicinity of two hundred. This list usually includes personal pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, a few verbs and several other items of similarly high frequency of occurrence.

In all, it is planned to run the preliminary count to one hundred thousand words, taken from ten sources, ten thousand words being chosen from each unit. After the completion of the preliminary count there will be transferred to the list of high frequency words an additional number of words, provided that they occur frequently enough in a large number of sources.

After the completion of the final word count, the scope of which depends upon several factors, mostly financial, it will be then possible to establish a list of words arranged in the order of their frequency of occurrence as well as in order of occurrence in the several sources. Based upon the experience of word counts in the other modern languages, the forthcoming Russian frequency list will contain at least two thousand words for which a great degree of reliability can be claimed in advance; that is, they will occur very often in practically any type of material in Russian one is going to read. But even beyond that, experience with other frequency lists has shown that the reliability of the words in the two thousand to five thousand range is also rather high. In addition, it is hoped that in the course of the investigation there will emerge a great wealth of other pertinent linguistic data which will be incorporated in the eventual summary.

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A New Spanish Novelist

IGNACIO AGUSTÍ is a young Catalan journalist whose fame previous to 1944 was somewhat obscure. In that year he published, in Spanish, his *Mariona Rebull* (Ediciones Destino, Barcelona), a novel which within Spain has received flattering comment. (The novel was written in Zurich in November-December of 1942.) A similarly favorable reaction followed the publication of *El viudo Rius* (Ediciones Destino, Barcelona, 1945), a sequel to *Mariona Rebull*, and written in various places between November of 1943 and April of 1945. The two volumes are the first of a four-novel series which the author calls "*La ceniza fué árbol*." The last two volumes, which at this writing have not been published, will be named *Desiderio* and *Joaquín Rius y su nieto*.

The first two novels describe the life of Joaquín Rius from its beginning to middle age. The last two, as the proposed titles imply, will concern themselves with Joaquín's son Desiderio and with Desiderio's son, as yet unnamed. Thus the series attempts a rather ambitious reconstruction of the lives of three generations. Through the Rius family, manufacturers of textiles, a portion of the life of the great Catalan city of Barcelona is recalled from the year 1888 on. It has for background the terrible labor strife with which students of Barcelonese industrial relations are familiar.

In a foreword to *Mariona Rebull*—which is dedicated to the author's father and "*a la memoria de los padres de mis amigos que ensancharon y defendieron una ciudad*"—Agustí explains in part what he is trying to do in his four-volume series:

"Cada uno de esos cuatro fragmentos de la vida de Joaquín Rius abarcará un período determinado de su existencia y de la vida de su ciudad y he intentado que pueda ser leído separadamente de los demás; cada uno de los cuatro ciclos de la narración quiere mantener su propia vida, sujeta a la de la totalidad de la obra, de la que es eslabón. . . . Así la obra me parece crecer lenta y orgánicamente como la propia vida de los seres que la integran.

"La toponimia es la de mi ciudad, Barcelona, y las épocas discurren sobre ella—y dentro de la obra—con sumisión casi absoluta a la realidad. Joaquín Rius y los demás personajes de la novela son imaginarios.

"Asimismo, tienen casi siempre una interpretación fantástica los hechos concretos de la historia de Barcelona, que son utilizados por el autor con un propósito puramente estético o novelesco. . . ."

In his first two volumes Agustí has succeeded well in the task which the foreword explains. Both *Mariona Rebull* and *El viudo Rius* are units in themselves, although inevitably a knowledge of the first of the two lends

significant perspective to an understanding of the second. They are not historical novels in the strict sense of the term; as the foreword implies, they utilize historical fact for background and atmosphere, but incidents are manipulated without slavish adherence to the minutiae of history. The author makes little effort to place Barcelona and its doings in the larger frame of peninsular economics and politics; the reader gets little direct hint of the "Catalan question" which has been such a difficult one for Spain for centuries. Not all of the characters of the novels are imaginary in spite of the author's assertion that they are. Figures appear whose names are recognized at once by the student of Spanish history: Cambó, Maura, Lerroux, Romanones, the writer Eugenio d'Ors, the entertainer Raquel Meller and others. The reader may suspect that certain figures, even, perhaps, some of the major ones, are real persons only slightly disguised by the author.

Mariona Rebull embraces the years 1888-1890. The action of *El viudo Rius* begins in 1899 and covers some eleven or twelve years. It is hard to say which of the two is the better novel. Both are strongly written, and both have to a satisfying degree those major factors necessary to good novelistic technique. The main thing is that Agustí knows how to tell a story; his style, at times brilliant, always pleasing, contributes toward the achievement of that happy effect. His sense of proportion and selection, his feeling for the inherently dramatic, are noteworthy characteristics. His originality in imagery and metaphor—to receive further comment below—are outstanding elements of his technique. A factor definitely worthy of comment—since many Hispanic works of fiction lack it—is the author's capacity to keep his reader oriented in time and place; one is never at a loss to know exactly what is going on. The one disconcerting exception to this praiseworthy generality is the fact that neither in *Mariona Rebull* nor in the first pages of *El viudo Rius* are the bombings made quite understandable. Agustí records them and lets the reader imagine for himself the terroristic background of political and labor unrest which provoked them. Further on in *El viudo Rius*, when Rius himself gets drawn into the labor strife, the bombings and their concomitant acts of vandalism and arson become more comprehensible. Even so, Agustí seems to assume that the reader knows in a general way the political and economic background of Barcelona during the periods he describes. For foreigners this means that the books are more difficult reading than are most modern Spanish novels.

Mariona Rebull is the daughter of a Barcelona jeweler who is very wealthy and of a family distinguished for many generations. Joaquín Rius is the son of a newly-rich textile manufacturer. Joaquín has been educated in a fashionable Jesuit school, has had the training a gentleman's son should have and has come to understand that the gentility are a people apart, a group by which he can never be accepted on terms of complete equality. As he gradually becomes a successful partner of his father in the textile busi-

ness, he postpones marriage because he is too immersed in his work to have time for romance and also because unconsciously he is waiting for a chance to marry "above" him. By no means a social climber, he nevertheless begins to feel that his life and his career can achieve their climax only if he marries into the gentility—and this in spite of his innate conviction that he and they can never quite understand each other. He finds it easy to become attracted to Mariona, whom he sees one day on the street as she returns from school. Several years his junior, she finds his maturity and force appealing and finally agrees to marry him. Her decision is made easier by the fact that the man she really loves, Ernesto Villar, does not love her in return.

Joaquín's father dies while Joaquín and Mariona are on their wedding trip. Joaquín returns to Barcelona to take full charge of the expanding business. He and Mariona at first are happy and take great delight in their young son Desiderio, named after Mariona's father. But the lack of real understanding between the two becomes clear with time; in a climactic scene, each confesses that he has never really loved the other, and Joaquín learns of Mariona's love for Villar. The two separate for a summer, then are drawn back together by the child Desiderio. Joaquín begins to feel that he really loves Mariona, now that he has nearly lost her; he does not know that she and Villar see each other occasionally. One evening at the theater, a class-conscious fanatic throws a bomb which destroys a large part of the auditorium and kills or maims many people. Joaquín, alone in his box, emerges unhurt to seek Mariona. He finds her in Villar's arms, both dead from the blast which has penetrated Villar's box. No one but Joaquín ever knows of Mariona's perfidy.

Mariona Rebull is so named because Mariona, for a time, is the motive force of Rius' life. She represents his one attempt to find love and domesticity and that elegant manner of living for which her social group stood. Having failed to make himself and his dreams of industrial power and prestige comprehensible to her—he never really tried very hard—, having lost her both spiritually and physically, he finds refuge in the one life he knows, his business. The substance of *El viudo Rius* is Joaquín's expansion of his factory, his growing wealth in spite of periods of intense discouragement and the actual loss of some of his markets due to the war with America and to labor's growing unrest. He buries himself in his business so deeply that romance is quite forgotten, except for a brief and unsavory escapade in Madrid with the young Lula and for the short period in which he imagines himself in love with Carmen. (She has the wit to refuse to marry him.) He neglects Desiderio rather thoroughly, although he is proud of the boy. Desiderio is educated in a fashionable school, is accepted by the sons of the gentility, learns the indispensable social graces. The inevitable result is that Desiderio has little comprehension of his father's way of look-

ing at things. Joaquín unconsciously assumes that Desiderio will want to pursue the family business; his violent awakening to the son's desire to mould his life in his own way comes when the boy expresses a wish to get into the new and glamorous automobile game. The rude awakening climaxes a set of circumstances which have borne heavily on Rius' spirit: the burden of his years, which he feels prematurely; his nearly constant strife with his laboring people, who do not appreciate as he thinks they should his paternalistic attitude toward them; and, finally and climactically, his wounding at the hand of a fanatic who tries to kill him as a bourgeois reactionary hostile to labor's welfare. All these circumstances for a brief time break his spirit, and he plans to run away with Lula, whom he has met again after a lapse of a number of years. Desiderio's reconsidered decision to bow to his father's will reawakens Joaquín's courage, and the novel ends with father and son entering the factory to take up their common burden of labor.

El viudo Rius, much more than *Mariona Rebull*, is infused with the note of labor strife, a constant undertone to the major action of the novel. Agustí is not entirely objective in his own attitude. It is obvious that his sympathies are with Rius, and, presumably, it is Rius and his kind who are the fathers of his friends "*que ensancharon y defendieron una ciudad [Barcelona]*," as mentioned in the dedication of *Mariona Rebull*. But Agustí's attitude is not propagandistic in an uncomfortable sense of the term. His characters use strong anti-labor language as befits their convictions, and events are seen through the partial eyes of Rius, but not often do the author's own words betray a strong feeling of partiality. He treats mostly by implication the involved and scurrilous politics of the period, leaving the unsavory details to be filled in by the informed reader. Joaquín's occasional incursions into political manuevrings come only when his business interests demand them.

Agustí's rather unusual gift for imagery and metaphor may be illustrated by a few examples from *Mariona Rebull*:

"Los trabajadores lucían, como los patronos, cuidadas barbas, que olían a tabaco y honradez"; of the old-fashioned gas light, "la mariposa azul del gas"; of Joaquín's mother's ironing, "se sentía el ceceo de la ropa blanca, salpicada de gotas de agua"; again, a keen observation of external reality, "unos sacos de cacao tumbados en un rincón como cerdos dormidos"; or of internal sensation, "se siente en el revés de la mano el discurrir de la sangre, lento como una insinuación"; of young love, "las primeras inquietudes, no complejas aún, pero adivinadas hasta lo más hondo; y la sensación de ráfaga en la carne, el amor atolondrado primerizo y apasionante que desvela de pronto la forma leve y fugaz, a media tarde, de la cintura de una amiga; un modo inesperado de pisar; la curva que sobreviene al apoyar aquélla el codo sobre la mesa. . . . Y al darse cuenta de que la sorprendía una mirada de hombre, y no de muchacho, volverse para atrás con un rubor inconfundible."

Agustí makes no effort to be sensational; only rarely does he rise to an attempt at major climax. There is no pornography; even the Lula episode of *El viudo Rius* is managed with tact and delicacy. The author impresses one as being in every sense an adult, and he pays his reader the compliment of writing for adults. He creates a sense of reality that only a few of Spain's better novelists can achieve. The concluding volumes of the four-novel series may confidently be awaited with pleased expectancy.

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The Alabama Chapter of the American Association of Teachers of French met at State Teachers College, Jacksonville, Alabama, October 30–November 1.

In addition to an address by His Excellency Henri Bonnet, French Ambassador at Washington, there were addresses by Dr. John Tyler Caldwell ("Toward International Understanding"), Dr. W. S. Hendrix ("Why Students Should Study Foreign Languages"), Dr. Julian Harris ("How Can the ASTP Method of Teaching Foreign Languages Be Adapted to the Use of Civilian Classes?"), Professor Maxwell Lancaster ("*D'Aubigne, Soldat de Calvin*"), Dr. C. E. Cayley ("Historic and Picturesque French Canada"), Dr. George Vernon Irons ("The French in Alabama"), Dr. Marguerite Pflieger ("*Une opinion française*") and Dr. W. Morrison McCall ("Intelligent Cooperation Basis for Better Understanding").

Survey of the Spanish Language Press in the United States

THE Spanish language press in this country consists of approximately 160 newspapers and magazines. Of these, twenty-five belong to the Catholic and Protestant religious press and fifty-seven are trade or professional journals. This leaves seventy-eight periodicals belonging to what can be styled the "regular" press, which forms the subject of this survey. The religious and commercial journals can well be made the subjects of separate surveys as each of these two fields is sufficiently vast in itself.

That part of the Spanish press which makes use of the commonly accepted sources of news, the Associated Press and the United Press, is so much like the ordinary run of newspapers in English in this country that there is not much to be said of one that cannot apply to all. Such papers usually give a very conservative "slant" to the news and follow an "orthodox" line which often causes quite similar lurid headlines to appear simultaneously in all parts of the country. For this reason, this survey will give a little more interest to those papers which are different from those of the ordinary run.

From what follows we can see that the Spaniards, Mexicans, Puerto Ricans, Cubans and other Latin Americans resident in this country are far from being in agreement on many fundamental concepts of the day. There is, however, one point on which most of them can agree. That is the necessity of combatting racial discrimination and, to a lesser degree, religious discrimination such as is practiced quite freely on Latin Americans, particularly in the Southwest, but also to quite an extent in New York City.

Throughout the Southwest the Spanish language press is best represented in the state of Texas, which has a total of thirty-four Spanish publications. The Mexican element in Texas is found chiefly along the Rio Grande and south of a line running from Galveston in the east to El Paso in the west. The total Spanish speaking population of the state is estimated at 300,000, about one sixth of the Spanish speaking population in the entire country.

Twelve of Texas' thirty-four Spanish publications are in the area containing one of the largest concentrations of Mexicans anywhere in the state, in the southeast corner next to the Mexican border. In this area, extending 150 miles along the Texas coast north of the Rio Grande, and inland to a distance of about seventy-five miles, we find Spanish publications

in Corpus Christi, Kingsville, Raymondville, San Benito and Mission. Passing up the Rio Grande we find Spanish publications in the following order along its banks or not far from the river: Brownsville (two publications), San Benito (eight miles north of the river), Mission (ten miles from the river), Laredo (two publications), Del Rio (two publications) and El Paso. El Paso leads the state with eleven Spanish publications, most of them religious. The two other big centers in the state for Spanish publications are Corpus Christi with six and San Antonio, also with six. San Antonio is generally considered as Texas' chief center of Mexican culture.

The best known of all Texas papers in Spanish is the six-page San Antonio *Prensa*, which circulates throughout this country and Mexico. The publisher of this paper, Ignacio E. Lozano, likewise publishes a daily in Los Angeles, California under the name of *La Opinión*. Also under his management in San Antonio is the Librería Lozano, one of the largest dispensers in this country of books in Spanish. Señor Lozano was born in 1886 in the Mexican state of Nuevo León, 75 miles the other side of the Rio Grande.

Texas' one other daily entirely in Spanish is the six-page *Continental*, from El Paso. The region served by this paper includes West Texas, Southern New Mexico, Eastern Arizona and the northern part of the Mexican state of Chihuahua. However, the primary market for the publication lies among the Spanish speaking population of El Paso and Ciudad Juárez across the Rio Grande in Mexico. The number of Spanish speaking residents of El Paso is estimated at 57,000, which is fifty-seven per cent of the city's entire population. *El Continental's* primary coverage includes 119,000 Spanish speaking persons living within five miles of El Paso City Hall, a circle which includes the entire city of Juárez, Mexico. Under the old management, which existed up to two years ago, the editorial policies of the paper were Democratic. The present management has not yet decided on any special political policy. The present editor, Fernando Rubio, was born in the state of Yucatan, Mexico. After working with a daily in Mexico City he came to El Paso, where he has been editor of the *Continental* for the past two years. *El Continental* has run several articles relative to discrimination against Mexicans, but only when absolutely sure of the facts and when there was definite proof of discrimination. Several of these articles were run when Spanish speaking young men, serving in the United States army during the last war, were victims of discrimination while in uniform. The articles contained several instances of such practices in the southeastern part of the state, where organized discrimination is most commonly encountered.

Brownsville, Texas has an eight page daily called the *Brownsville Herald*, which is also published in a so-called Spanish edition. In the latter edition only the front and back pages are in Spanish, the remaining pages being in English.

In New Mexico, of the nine papers listed, only four are printed entirely in Spanish, and all of these are weeklies printing little else than local news. They are from the old Spanish settlements of Albuquerque, Santa Fe, Socorro and Espanola. The other five papers are also weeklies, containing usually eight or ten pages of English followed by a Spanish supplement of one or two pages. Newspapers of this type are found in Belen, Las Vegas, Mora, Taos and Tierra Amarilla. Usually the paper is the only one in existence in the community and the Spanish part of the population is not large enough to support a paper of its own. Eight of the nine New Mexican newspapers mentioned come from the north-central part of the state.

In picturesque Taos the weekly *Taosño*, with its ten pages in English and two-page Spanish supplement, claims to be the lineal descendant of the all-Spanish *El Crepúsculo*. This was New Mexico's first newspaper. It made its appearance in 1835 and was suspended after four issues while New Mexico was still a part of Old Mexico. Taos, third oldest town in what is now the United States, is thus the cradle of U. S. newspaperdom in all territory west of the Mississippi. The founder of *El Crepúsculo*, a Catholic priest by the name of Antonio José Martínez, brought his press and type from Mexico to Taos in 1830 in the old ox-wagon days of the Southwest, long before railroads and modern highways had penetrated that region. His publication was not only the first newspaper in the West to appear in the Spanish language but was also the first newspaper in any language to make its appearance in the West.

Arizona's Spanish press consists of five periodicals, three in Tucson and two in Phoenix. The Phoenix *Mensajero* is the official organ of the "Committee for Americanism and Inter-American Solidarity." Most of the paper consists of articles attacking discrimination against Mexicans and Latin-American ancestry. The claim is made that there can be no inter-American solidarity as long as such discrimination continues to be tolerated. In Tucson the *Tucsonense* appears twice weekly. A monthly from Tucson entitled *Alianza* is the official organ of the fraternal order called the Alianza Hispano-Americana.

Colorado has six Spanish periodicals. In San Luis there are two weeklies in English with Spanish supplements. Weeklies of similar type are found in Trinidad and Walsenburg. Pueblo has an eight-page semi-monthly entitled *El Farol*, half in English and half in Spanish. All these Mexican colonies are located mainly in the south-central part of the state and represent to a large degree an extension of the more numerous Spanish speaking colonies of north-central New Mexico.

When we come to California, the Spanish language press blossoms forth again, playing almost as important a role as it does in Texas. California has a total of fifteen Spanish periodicals to serve the 400,000 Latin Americans who are found mainly in the southern part of the state. The largest con-

centration of Latin-Americans is in Los Angeles County, where there are about 250,000. This accounts for the fact that nine of the fifteen periodicals in California are published in Los Angeles and five more are published within a distance of sixty miles from Los Angeles. This leaves only two which are published in other parts of the state, namely in Calexico and San Diego, close to the Mexican border. The Calexico paper entitled *Voz del Mundo* is one of the two Spanish dailies in California. The other is *La Opinión* of Los Angeles. The latter is the best known of all Spanish newspapers in California and has the largest circulation. *El Heraldo de México*, a Los Angeles weekly, claims to be the oldest Spanish periodical still published in California, having been founded in 1915. *El Eco de México* is a semi-monthly devoted to literature and politics and published by Rafael Trujillo. Towns within sixty miles of Los Angeles which publish Spanish weeklies are Fullerton, Pomona and San Bernardino.

The Spanish American colonies in New Orleans are large enough to support *La Voz Latina*, a fortnightly paper for the circulation of general news. Journeying still farther East, we find that a small group of old Spanish settlers still exists in Florida, but most Spanish speaking persons in that state at the present time are Cubans, most of them fairly recent arrivals from their native land. Cubans began coming to Florida with the establishment of the cigar industry in 1880-1890. The new industry required large numbers of workers who were already well versed in a skill which few Americans had mastered. A large part of the Cubans in Florida are still engaged in making cigars. They are most numerous in and around Tampa, where there are more than a hundred cigar factories producing about one million cigars for each working day of the year. The section of Tampa called Ybor City is a miniature Havana. Tampa is the only Florida city which has a Spanish language press, although there are smaller Cuban colonies in many other Florida cities. Of Tampa's 101,000 inhabitants, some 20,000 are Spanish speaking. About half the Spanish press, which consists of five periodicals, has a decidedly leftist or pro-labor slant.

Tampa's best known paper is the *Traducción-Prensa*, published daily except Sunday. It appears every morning and is one of the oldest Spanish language papers in the country. It calls itself "The only Spanish morning newspaper published in the South." The first page consists of international and domestic news supplied exclusively by the Overseas News Agency. The second, third, seventh and eighth pages of this eight-page daily contain special articles by commentators, news items and translations from the *Information Bulletin of the U.S.S.R. Embassy*, all of which clearly indicate that the paper's policy is pro-Soviet, pro-Communist and pro-labor, working in the interests of the C.I.O. union to which Spanish speaking cigar workers belong. As with most of the labor press, news of strikes is given prominent play. Page four is devoted to social items concerning the Cuban

colony, while page five is given over entirely to sports. The first half of page six consists of a serial story. On the last page a Catholic church advertises masses and other services. Tampa's other Spanish daily is the *Gaceta*, whose party affiliations are Democratic. The *Leader*, also Democratic, appears every Sunday in both Spanish and English. *El Internacional*, appearing every Thursday, is the official organ of the Tampa locals of the Cigarmakers' International Union.

Moving up to New York, we find a total of seventeen periodicals in Spanish, in addition to the twenty-four trade journals which that city publishes in Spanish. This gives New York a total of forty-one publications, a larger number than for any other city or state in the country. New York's only Spanish daily, *La Prensa*, has the largest circulation of any Spanish daily in this country. It is also quite old as far as foreign language papers go, having been established back in 1913. The editor is Julio Garzon. Like most of the large and successful newspapers in this country, its policies are very conservative.

Norte, with its sub-title *Revista Continental*, is the best illustrated and most attractively gotten-up of any of the Spanish periodicals in this country. This monthly magazine of timely cultural and news articles also has the largest circulation (over 97,000) of any Spanish language publication in this country. This large circulation seems all the more remarkable for a publication of this type when we are reminded that the magazine was established only in 1940. The magazine appeals to general cultural interests and circulates throughout this country as well as in all countries of Latin America. The editor is J. A. Losada.

Nueva Democracia, another monthly magazine, is issued by the Committee on Cooperation in Latin-America and has as its main object the promotion of friendly relations between this country and the nations to the south. Established in 1920, the paper is edited by Alberto Rembao.

Liberación is the mouthpiece of the Puerto Rican nationalists resident in New York and elsewhere in this country. The Puerto Ricans in New York number about 400,000 and thus form the largest of the Spanish-speaking colonies in that city. They are centered chiefly in the northeast part of Manhattan, in the neighborhood of Harlem and the Bronx and in Washington Heights, but can also be found scattered generally in smaller numbers throughout all of New York City. The only place outside of New York where sizeable Puerto Rican colonies exist is in California, and there the numbers are very small compared with the immense New York colony. The weekly *Liberación*, founded in 1946, always carries a line in its masthead which states that it is "*Por la libertad de España, Puerto Rico y demás países oprimidos.*" ("For the liberty of Spain, Puerto Rico and other oppressed countries.") The paper joins full-heartedly in support of the Spanish Republicans in their fight against Franco. It is entirely a left-wing publica-

tion, giving its support to slightly left-of-center Roosevelt New Dealers, the C.I.O., liberal Democrats, Socialists and Communists, with special support for the last-named group. Politically it supports the American Labor Party and its sole representative in Congress, Vito Marcantonio, who also receives the support of Harlem Negroes and several other minority racial groups and labor groups in the 18th New York congressional district between 59th and 129th Streets in Manhattan. Britain and the United States are portrayed in *Liberación* as the world's two greatest imperial powers, far more interested in profits derived from exploitation of their colonies than they are in promoting democracy. On the other hand, Soviet Russia is praised as the land in which conditions of complete racial and religious equality prevail. Since about a third of the Puerto Rican colony in New York is colored, all cases of racial discrimination are given considerable play. The Vatican is denounced for its animosity toward Russia and for its support of Franco in Spain.

Aurelio Perez, editor of *Liberación*, is 45 years old and is president of the Coordinating Committee for Republican Spain. He is a veteran of the Lincoln Brigade, the American unit which fought with the Loyalists in the Spanish Civil War of 1936-39. Bernardo Vega, managing editor of the paper, is a Puerto Rican. A lecturer on Puerto Rico, he is 60 years old. He has been a newspaperman for more than thirty years and has always been connected with Puerto Rican papers. Carmen Meana, the business manager, is 39. A Spaniard, he also serves as one of the secretaries of the Coordinating Committee referred to above.

El Crisol ("The Crucible"), another New York weekly, carries in its masthead the following statement: "Our Creed: The Democratic form of government as embodied in the Constitution of the United States and other American Republics." Politically the paper is left-wing and very similar in its outlook to *Liberación*. *El Crisol*, however, seems to be oriented largely in the direction of Cubans resident in New York, of whom there are estimated to be about 30,000. Items of interest to Cubans are especially numerous, although news items concerning the whole of Latin America are to be found. A large part of the paper is concerned with the social, political and cultural activities of the Cuban and other Spanish-American colonies in New York.

Nueva York al Día, another weekly, now in its tenth year, is New York's graphic newspaper in Spanish. It might also be called a "family newspaper." It contains news of interest to all of New York's huge Spanish speaking population, especially Cubans and Puerto Ricans. There are literary and feature articles, articles on the social life of the Latin American colonies, sports items and theater news. The selection of news articles and the manner in which they are written would indicate that the paper is leftist in its sympathies.

España Libre, another weekly, is the representative organ of the anti-Franco Spanish Republicans in New York City and other centers in this country. The whole tone of the paper is anti-Franco and anti-fascist. Although the publication accepts gratefully the aid of any party or group which will assist in bringing about the overthrow of Hitler's erstwhile friend in Spain, its ideology seems to be mainly that of the Spanish Socialists. This would explain the mild rebukes which are administered to the Communists. However, the great majority of the articles are directed against the Spanish dictator. Conditions inside Spain are described as becoming progressively worse, conditions which are calculated in time to open the way to the restoration of the Spanish Republic. Next to Franco and his regime in Spain, Great Britain is represented as the chief offender against the Spanish Republicans because of her recognition and support of Franco Spain. *España Libre* is edited by José Castilla.

El Anunciador, another New York weekly, is intended mainly for Puerto Ricans and contains items of general news interest. As its title indicates, a preponderantly large part of the paper is taken up with advertising.

Ecos, a weekly magazine founded only last year, contains articles of interest to the Latin American colony of New York in the field of news, politics, literature, culture, fiction, sports, moving pictures, women's interests and astrology. In the short section devoted to politics the magazine shows itself to be fairly conservative, being both anti-Franco and anti-communist. Its policies might best be described as middle-of-the road, wavering between a liberal and moderately conservative attitude.

Cultura Proletaria, a weekly in its nineteenth year, is the only publication in Spanish in this country representing the anarchist viewpoint. Its ideological slant is typical of anarchist publications the world over and may be summed up as anti-capitalism with a special emphasis on freedom and individualism. The paper describes itself as being anti-fascist, anti-Marxist, anti-Soviet and anti-Franco. It is opposed to what it describes as the present day dollar imperialism. Since so much of the paper's space is taken up with attacks on Soviet Russia, it would seem that Russia and the communists are considered as their number one enemy. The views of this paper reflect the teachings of Prince Kropotkin, the founder of modern anarchism, whose works are occasionally referred to in the course of various articles.

The Spanish edition of the weekly *Bulletin of the United Nations* (*Boletín semanal de las Naciones Unidas*) began its first appearance in November 1946 along with English and French versions. United Nations headquarters at Lake Success announces that plans are in progress for other editions in various other languages. A large ninety-six page magazine, the *Boletín* is a carefully prepared and well illustrated report on United Nations activities. Featuring the various issues are such items as biographical sketches of leading UNO personalities, activities of the International Court of Justice

in The Hague, reports on discussions at UNO meetings, activities of the various subcommittees and member organizations of the UNO and calendar of coming sessions and activities. The printing is done by the Columbia University Press.

La Vara, a weekly from New York City, is the only newspaper in this country printed in Ladino, the name given to the Spanish-Jewish dialect. There are 30,000 Sephardic Jews today in New York, their only sizeable colony in this country. Ladino and Yiddish are the chief modern Jewish dialects spoken today. Ladino, or Judaeo-Spanish, is generally printed in rabbinical, though sometimes in square Hebrew characters, and not infrequently in Latin characters. The Sephardic Jews are the descendants of those Jews who were expelled from Spain in 1492, most of whom went to Turkey. Descendants of the Sephardim or "Spagnoli" are now found scattered throughout Turkey, Yugoslavia, Bulgaria, Palestine and Morocco. *La Vara* has a circulation of over 16,000, which is large for a foreign language newspaper. We have seen fit to include *La Vara* among the Spanish language publications of this country since Ladino is fundamentally Spanish, although it contains many old Hebrew and Talmudic words. A Spaniard could readily understand it when spoken or written in Latin characters. The language to which it bears the greatest similarity is the Old Spanish of the fifteenth century. It is less frequently designated as "*idioma español*," "*lengua castellana*" or "*lengua vulgar*."

In Jersey City, N. J., *Justicia*, the Spanish edition of *Justice*, is a labor newspaper published monthly by the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union (A.F. of L.). The paper also has separate editions in Italian and Jewish. The union is controlled by fairly conservative right wing elements.

Chicago and its suburb of South Chicago, because of their large Mexican colonies, account for four regular Spanish publications. There are also nine trade journals in Spanish. The two weeklies, *ABC* and *El Popular*, deal largely with Mexican affairs. *Amigos*, a quarterly, is devoted to literature. *El Anunciador*, from South Chicago is mainly an advertising medium.

I trust that this study of the Spanish language press has been as objective and as unprejudiced as it is possible to make it. I have tried to show the enormous extent and diversity of a press which ought to be known and appreciated by students of Spanish language and culture in this country. It is a press reflecting a vast range of view-points, showing that the Spanish speaking residents of this country are particularly susceptible to the great conflicts and currents and cross-currents of thought which characterize the rapidly changing world of today.

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Language Trends in the Leading Colleges for Women

AS an aftermath of the war and the Army's experience in the teaching of foreign languages, many schools and colleges have reorganized their courses and changed their language requirements. A great deal has been written describing the innovations in the men's colleges, but not much has been said concerning what is being done in the leading women's colleges. This somewhat sketchy paper is an attempt to describe, without trying to evaluate, what was learned from direct observation by attendance at classes and from conversations with heads of departments, professors and instructors in French and Spanish during visits to seven of the most prominent colleges for women.

During this investigation, two facts stood out above all others, namely: (1) the increased amount of class time devoted to elementary language courses; (2) the emphasis on the aural-oral approach. Except in one case, the three-periods-per-week course is a thing of the past. In two colleges, elementary classes in French and Spanish meet six periods per week. In another, elementary French meets five times per week and elementary Spanish six times. In a fourth, where three meetings per week was the practice the past year, these courses will meet five times. In the remaining two, classes meet four times a week. In order to compensate for the additional time, some colleges give more credit for the course. Others deduct two hours from assignment time. When classes meet only four times, no special provision is made.

The emphasis on the aural-oral approach is very marked. Two colleges have adopted the Army procedure almost completely with slight adaptations to suit the personality of the organizer and the teachers of the course. In the case of one, there is even a native informant. In the other, there is not. In order to correct more effectively defects in pronunciation, two colleges use recording machines. As for conversation—it begins with the very first day and continues throughout the course. Naturally, at the outset these conversations are rigidly controlled in order to keep the students within the limits of their vocabulary. Gradually, as they master the basic words and idioms, conversation becomes freer.

This tremendous emphasis by the colleges on the ability to understand and to speak the foreign language raises a very important problem. In general, students who have begun language in the secondary school are not

so proficient in this phase of the work. There are, of course, exceptions to this depending upon the particular school and the particular section of the country from which the girls come. Certain secondary schools have already reorganized their courses to meet the new situation, but many have not. If incoming freshmen who are weak in the aural-oral aspect of language are strong in other respects, they may be placed with students who began the language in college, but they are required to take one or two hours of conversation per week in order to eliminate the deficiency. They may, on the other hand, be placed in a special section designed just for such people. This group might also include students who began the language in college but who for various reasons failed to develop the skill to express themselves acceptably.

Colleges do not want inaccurate fluency. Therefore, they have not abandoned the teaching of grammar, although the approach to it varies from college to college. In the two which follow the Army procedure most closely, the teaching of grammar as such is postponed until five to eight weeks after the beginning of the course. In others, it is begun earlier and taught very seriously by various techniques.

Free composition has come to occupy a very important place in language courses. Usually students are asked to write one every three or four weeks in the elementary course and more frequently later on. At first, they must of necessity be limited in scope because of the students' limited command of vocabulary and grammar. Gradually they become freer and more difficult. In the intermediate and advanced courses, such as those open to freshmen with three or four units of language credits from secondary schools, critical analyses replace the narrative and descriptive compositions which one finds in the elementary courses. Students are asked to analyze critically in writing, as well as in conversation, the plot, characters, thought, style and literary value of a work read in class or outside.

The courses open to freshmen vary according to the number of units of entrance credits in a given language. Students offering two units are usually placed in a reading and composition course which attempts to strengthen their grammatical background in addition to giving them further training in reading. Translation into English is almost completely eliminated in reading. Instead, the student's preparation and comprehension are tested by detailed questions on the contents of the assignment. Frequently, of course, the teacher asks questions on other subjects related to the points being discussed in class. Reading aloud in the foreign language is done under the teacher's guidance in order to improve pronunciation and intonation. A two-year language student may be placed in a literature course intended for such students, but she does not have to take it, for she has the choice of going into the type just described, which is much more common in the colleges visited.

Freshmen offering three or four units, on the other hand, are placed in a literature course. This does not necessarily mean a survey course of the type to which we have been accustomed. It means the type of course in which no formal grammar is taught. The emphasis is on reading and discussion with a certain amount of lecture work. After having read a prescribed number of pages, students are not only required to answer questions on content but also to discuss critically the various aspects of the work in question. Here, too, one occasionally finds reading aloud in the foreign language.

As for language requirements—the practice varies in the different colleges. One requires that all candidates for a degree pass in one language a written examination designed to test their reading skill. In another, students must pass examinations in two languages. A third requires an examination, but if the student has passed with honors the achievement test of the College Entrance Examination Board, she is excused from all language work and requirements. A fourth does not require an examination or the taking of a course but strongly recommends six hours of credit in the group of subjects which includes foreign languages. In a fifth, it is necessary to do six hours of work in a language offered for entrance credit or twelve hours in a language begun in college. In still another, the requirements can be met by six hours' credit in a language in college. The course taken may be elementary in nature.

The language situation in the colleges is by no means stable. In those institutions where new courses and procedures have already been introduced, readjustments will be made as these courses are observed in operation. In others, innovations are in the offing but waiting the recommendations of committees which have been working on them for some time. One interesting change which is designed to meet the needs of the non-specialists is a course, to be introduced in the fall of 1947, which will consist of the reading of certain masterpieces, probably in chronological order, with a view to giving a bird's eye view of the development of the literature of the people whose language is being studied. This will differ from the traditional survey course in that lectures will be reduced to a minimum, and the emphasis will be placed upon the reading and discussion of the major texts themselves rather than the learning of innumerable names, titles and dates.

Another interesting innovation is a survey of the civilization of a country through lectures in English, the reading of masterpieces and the writing of reports in the foreign language. This, too, is intended for those students who are not planning to major in languages. This is an encouraging step forward, and it is hoped that there will be more courses of similar nature.

This rather limited investigation has not only served to obtain first-hand information on language trends in colleges but also to show con-

clusively that there is a great deal of excellent teaching in foreign languages at the college level contrary to the beliefs and contentions of some people. We should feel proud of the progressiveness and openmindedness of the leaders in our field who are willing to try the new in order to improve and to meet changing conditions even if we should happen to disagree on the methods employed.

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The Modern Language Section of the Ohio College Association met at the College of Wooster, Wooster, Ohio, on October 18. The program included a panel discussion ("Standardized Tests in Language Classes in Ohio Colleges") and an address ("Present Day Europe in the Mirror of Literature") by Joseph Remenyi, Associate Professor of Comparative Literature, Western Reserve University.

Language or Technicalities?

HERE is a typical classroom situation: A teacher of German wants to introduce the subject of strong and weak verbs. He begins by arousing interest in English past-tense formation with such examples, as *wink, think, sink; ring, wring, bring; tie, lie; land, stand* and others, leading to the conclusion that there are two main groups of verbs. Now let him ask the class whether anyone has heard of good names for these groups, hoping, of course, to elicit the answer "regular and irregular." But unless he has a very unusual class indeed, he will get nothing but blank looks. Even after he mentions these terms himself, they will strike no responsive chord. The students simply have never heard of them.

The teacher may react to this situation in one of two ways. He may shake his head and wonder what the world is coming to and then irately demand to know why high-school students are not taught the fundamentals of English grammar. Or he may rejoice because, if the students do not know the terms "regular and irregular," these will not conflict with the terms "strong and weak," which he will have to teach them anyway.

It is quite a familiar fact, of course, that one of the few topics enjoying any real unanimity of opinion among modern foreign language teachers today is the "woeful neglect" of grammar on the part of those wicked English teachers. We never tire of complaining that our students come to our classes in blissful ignorance of even the simplest ideas regarding the structure of their mother tongue, not to mention the technical vocabulary usually employed to describe it. We are lucky indeed if they know what a noun is, and the sheer folly of hopefully asking for a definition of any other part of speech is aptly exemplified by the blushing co-ed who in all seriousness answered, "A preposition, sir, is something no nice girl would listen to."

But in spite of all this "ignorance," do we ever stop to consider that the English usage of our young people—barring such juvenile phenomena as jive and double-talk—is on the whole no worse than it was in the days when "English" as a school subject was practically synonymous with formal grammar? Can the speech of our present-day youth be honestly said to be sub-standard compared to that of the students of an earlier day who spent hours parsing nouns and reciting verb-conjugations?

Is it possible, then, that we have been so blinded by tradition that we have failed to see any advantage in the situation we so eagerly bewail? One cannot escape a lurking suspicion that our complaints against the English Departments are in large measure a cloak for our own unwilling-

ness to take upon ourselves the responsibility of teaching from the ground up whatever grammar we may consider necessary for our subject. As already suggested above, that is at best a very narrow-minded attitude, based on the misapprehension that such instruction would take up too much of our time. That objection would be quite valid if we were to teach *all* the grammatical intricacies required to understand the structure of a foreign language *as it is now customarily presented*. But the brighter side of this problem becomes visible as we ask ourselves whether it is unavoidably necessary to present foreign languages in terms of such a highly technical analysis. That is why I maintain that we ought to be glad our students come to us with no prejudices regarding grammar. We are confronted with a glorious opportunity to re-form our battle lines for a new and perhaps completely different attack. Or, if you prefer a more domestic metaphor, we have a job of house-cleaning to do, during which a lot of old furniture may well be thrown out and what remains will be arranged in more pleasing and, we hope, more efficient patterns.

Grammar has always been a bugaboo. The very word conjures up long tables of paradigms and rules with endless exceptions to be learned by rote, of hair-splitting distinctions regarding "correctness," couched in an unwieldy technical vocabulary whose chief virtue seems to be the formidable façade behind which it hides obscure concepts. Until our English teachers began to give voice to a few doubts, everyone blithely assumed that we could not speak our language without being able to tell whether a noun was in the nominative or objective case or a verb in the first, second or third person singular or plural, the active or passive voice, the indicative or subjunctive mood, the progressive, habitual or emphatic aspect, or the present, past, future or conditional tense or their perfects. Fortunately, the doubts of those few teachers eventually made it inescapably clear that English can be learned without all this verbiage, that such terms as "nominative," for example, or "subjunctive" are well-nigh meaningless when applied to our language. In fact it was a crime ever to foist all this terminology upon us in the first place. Its origin lies in the mistaken reverence of our forbears for Ciceronian Latin, a reverence which attempted to force our language into a system essentially alien to it and which actually retarded the normal development not only of English but especially of German and to some extent even of the Romance languages. The Latin Tradition became the god of all grammarians, and where other languages had no distinctions to correspond to those of Latin, such distinctions were invented—for example "declensions" for English nouns! What was simple was made complicated.

The English teachers have thrown off the tyranny of Latin. Perhaps they have gone a bit too far in their revolution—that it not for us to decide. The significant fact for us is that we, the foreign language teachers of Amer-

ica, are still enslaved to the Latin tradition. It is time we, too, did a bit of rebelling. My chief concern at the present moment is with the terminology we use, but let me at least throw out these general questions to provoke thought and perhaps—long overdue—action. How much of our grammar is still purely formalistic? How much of our traditional grammar is presented in unnecessarily complicated form and could be replaced by simpler explanations? To what extent are we wasting time on mere technicalities in our classes—time that could be used for conversational practice? To what extent is our grammatical material adapted to our aims? Do we teach in conversation courses details that come up only in formal writing? Or, if reading ability is our goal, do we spend valuable time on fine distinctions that one need master only for speaking? Do we test our students for their knowledge of language or their knowledge of academic grammar? To what extent do our elementary textbooks sacrifice pedagogical adaptability to “logical” arrangement or to an uncontrolled passion for completeness, such as should be reserved purely for reference grammars? Do our “short” and sometimes “shorter” grammars really simplify or do they merely give the same old traditional material in less pedestrian form? Have the authors of even the latest conversational grammars grasped the opportunity to throw off the Latin tyranny and give us new formulations based on similarities with English or are their grammatical explanations merely the old ones presented in a somewhat sketchier fashion—emasculated rather than “streamlined?”

Since our students come to us with no grammatical terminology whatever in their otherwise rich vocabularies, it is only natural to ask whether the nomenclature we have been using is really as indispensable as we may be inclined to regard it. Much of it presupposes a fairly thorough study of Latin on the part of the student, but since we can definitely assume no such preparation, there is little point in using terms other than those unavoidably necessary for both English and the language being taught. Obviously there is no need to use the names of cases in presenting French, Spanish or Italian to Americans who know no Latin, but the instructor of Russian faces the problem of explaining from the ground up the whole concept of grammatical case, and since each of the Slavic cases has such a variety of uses, their present names are probably about as suitable as any. Traditionally, the German teacher—always the most obstinately conservative—seems to feel he must do the same. Yet the desirability of the time-honored case and gender nomenclature for German is open to question. Where gender is so utterly unpredictable, the terms “masculine,” “feminine” and “neuter” merely invite confusion with the concept of sex and are best replaced by the purely functional names: *der-nouns*, *die-nouns* and *das-nouns*. As for cases—certainly “subject-form” and “object-form” are more to the point than “nominative” and “accusative,” and

"genitive" can be replaced with a perfectly calm conscience by "possessive form" even if that does not indicate all of its uses. For "dative" the choice of a more expressive name is rendered difficult by the wide variety of functions this case performs. "Giving-form" is at least as inclusive as the Latin name, but if this sounds a bit too limited in its adaptability, let us at least state clearly that "dative" means "giving" and introduce it first in connection with the verb "give."

While we are on the subject of the German case-forms, we can hardly afford to miss the opportunity to condemn as utterly useless the purely historical classification of nouns into strong, weak and mixed declensions. To speak of "declensions" of German nouns is merely to look for trouble. There is a singular stem, which may add an *-s* or *-es* for the possessive form and occasionally an *-e* for the dative form, and a plural stem, whose dative form must add an *-n* if it does not already end in one. According to the formation of the plural, certain roughly defined classes can be distinguished without reference to strength, weakness or any mixture of these mystical qualities. The most obvious group is that of *die-nouns* whose plural ends in *-n* without umlaut. To include among these such *der-nouns* as *der Bär*, *der Löwe*, *der Student* and *der Junge* is a needless complication; the fact that such nouns as *der Matrose*, *der Soldat* and *der Marineinfanterist* are of a similar nature rendered the term "weak masculine" singularly inappropriate in colleges that had military or naval units during the war. At that time I used the name "dangerous males" purely for its dramatic effectiveness. At any rate these nouns constitute an exception to the regular scheme of singular and plural stems and endings and could be called simply irregular, although we might then be at a loss for a printable name for those more formidable sources of annoyance, *Name* and *Herz*, not to mention *das Sofa*.

As for the German adjective—it has always basked in the dubious light of notoriety, yet its alleged terrors are due solely to the successful efforts of our academic grammarians to make its presentation as complicated as possible. So deep are the roots of this tradition that even our best teachers find it difficult to dismiss from their minds the purely theoretical notion of three separate "declensions"—strong, weak and mixed—even after they realize how utterly unnecessary it is to talk of adjectives in such terms. It remained for Moulton and Moulton¹ to sweep away these intricacies and point out the essentially simple principle involved.

When we come to the verb we naturally think first of tense nomenclature. We might as well resign ourselves to the fact that only trained linguists can ever achieve any real grasp of tense as an abstract grammatical concept, and it is time we stopped expecting this accomplishment of our students.

¹ *Spoken German*. Henry Holt and Company, 1944.

To them any idea of tense must be attached to one of time-reference and where necessary, this time-reference can then be subdivided into *aspects* such as perfective, imperfective, progressive, habitual, emphatic, narrative or isolated. In this connection we can learn a great deal from our Russian colleague—a comparative newcomer among us but often the one who, of all of us, is least prejudiced by ancient trappings inherited from the Latin-worshippers. Our own English verbs, for all their simplicity as regards the number of actual forms, possess a bewildering battery of tenses and aspects which are usually enough to make the foreigner throw up his hands in despair. (Basic English fans please take notice!) In comparison the verb systems of other languages are actually simple, and the wise teacher will not fail to point this out to his classes. Our three aspects of present time, for example, merge into one for all but Spanish, which, fortunately for the student, has a progressive aspect that is so easily learned it does not even need to be given a special technical name. The future time-reference so often implied in our present forms is even more highly developed in German, a fact which makes one wonder why the so-called "future tense" is given such prominent and time-consuming attention in most textbooks.

Morphologically, of course, there is no future "tense," or conditional tense either, in German since these are compounded in exactly the same way as in English. Yet instead of pointing out this obvious similarity we make great efforts to talk about the future as a separate tense, and in the case of the conditional nothing will satisfy us short of completely obscuring its essential simplicity by applying to it the most formidable name at our disposal—the terrifying "subjunctive"—all this in deference to Latin grammar. It is easy to see why the future and conditional need special treatment in the Romance languages and an entirely different special treatment in Russian, but in German and English these so-called tenses belong in a completely separate category and need not even be brought into direct connection with questions of time-reference and aspect. In both languages there are certain auxiliary or "helper" verbs that are used with an infinitive from which the normally preceding *to* or *zu* is omitted. It has long been customary to isolate six of these in German for special consideration, largely because they have certain internal irregularities in common. But to the English-speaking student it is only natural to think of *will* (*shall*) and *would* as merely other verbs like *can*, *may*, *must*, *could* and *should*, and the immediate applicability of this feature to German *wird* and *würde* should be obvious to all but the rabid Latin-worshipper.²

In English we also have two other auxiliaries. These are used together with a verb-form usually called the past participle, an unwieldy and not very expressive term but difficult to replace with a better one. The verb

² A detailed study of this topic is given in my article "Those Muddled Auxiliaries," *The German Quarterly*, March, 1946, pp. 132-138.

to be, used with a participle, gives us a whole new set of time-references and aspects to which we usually apply the name "passive." Of that more later. The verb *to have*, used with a participle, gives us, depending on the tense of the variable verb, two aspects of past time. Although, to be sure, the time-reference in such a sentence as *I've just finished the book* could even be said to be present, the resemblance to corresponding tenses and meanings in French, Spanish and German is too obvious to be ignored and should not be obscured by excessive emphasis on awesome tense-names. Of all the languages mentioned in these pages, probably only Spanish has a compound tense that is exclusively "present perfect" in actual function.

English has a wealth of aspects for reference to past time, and some of the distinctions involved are also present in the Romance languages and Russian. This gives ample justification for the use of such tense-names as "imperfect" and "perfect" since these refer to actual distinctions between habitual, continuous actions and isolated, completed acts. Even so, it must be explained to the student that "perfect" is grammatical jargon for "completed" and one could still wish for a term less ambiguous to the uninitiated. The word "preterite" certainly cannot be said to have any immediate appeal to the average American and should therefore be used only where it is wholly unavoidable. "Narrative past" might be more acceptable. In French the misnomer *passé indéfini* (just what is *indéfini* about such a sentence as *Nous avons acheté une douzaine d'oeufs?*) is now usually replaced by the frankly descriptive and easily understood designation *passé composé*.

But now let us turn to German. Here the use of such terms as "perfect" and "imperfect" cannot by any stretch of the imagination be justified on the basis of meaning, and their inclusion in our texts represents a type of devotion to the great god Latin that is so inexcusable as to merit only the most thoroughgoing condemnation. The German language simply does not employ verb-forms to make the distinctions exemplified by the various aspects of past time in English, Russian and the Romance languages. The application of the name "imperfect" to the very verb-forms that are regularly used in narrative style (where French uses the *passé défini* and Spanish and Italian use the preterite) is utterly untenable on any grounds and merely confuses the student, and often the teacher as well, especially if either or both have previously been exposed to Latin or its modern descendants. And the compounded forms (*haben* or *sein* plus participle) are so often used to refer to habitual, continuous or uncompleted actions—above all in colloquial usage—that the name "perfect," not to mention "present perfect," is so limited in its descriptive accuracy as to be wholly unsuitable. There is no clear distinction in meaning between *er wartete* and *er hat gewartet*. It is purely a matter of style. The "simple past" is more formal and the "compound past" more colloquial, yet even this is an oversimplified statement. Unfortunately it is very easy to becloud the issue with personal preferences

and local variations. Justly or unjustly, the traditional "Prussian" is very often accused of vociferously attempting to impose his own preference of the simple past on his neighbors and meeting all protests from Austrians, Swiss and South Germans by glaring down his nose at them and telling them they do not know how to speak their language correctly. Actually, of course, the existence of such differences of opinion only proves all the more emphatically that there is no real distinction between the two ways of referring to past time and that therefore the names "perfect" and "imperfect" are without justification on any basis of meaning or usage. The name "past perfect"—not "pluperfect"—on the other hand, actually does refer to an act completed in the past; the uncompromising radical who wants to rid himself once and for all of the annoyingly ambiguous word "perfect" can console himself with such not very ingenious inventions as "past previous" or "preceding past" (German *Vorvergangenheit*, French *passé antérieur!*) which indicate that the form is used to refer to an act which was completed previous to some other act or condition in the past. At the same time, however, we ought to stop exaggerating the importance of this form and limit it to situations where it would normally occur. As for the future perfect—its use in German is practically restricted to the probability idiom and therefore not an absolute necessity, while the conditional perfect is usually replaced by a shorter form which can be more easily approached from an entirely different angle to be spoken of later (that is, *hätte gesagt* rather than *würde gesagt haben*).

Where one of the traditional grammatical terms is unavoidable, it can often be made less obscure by emphasizing the similarity to English of the construction involved. The term "passive," for example, means absolutely nothing to our students. The teacher who does not first explain its meaning in English is courting disaster, for the majority of his class is practically certain to confuse it with the idea of a "past." In the Romance languages and Russian the passive itself is much less of a problem than the "substitutions" for it, especially the use of the reflexive with a passive meaning. This of course, also occurs in German, as does the use of an indefinite subject pronoun, *man*, roughly paralleled in French by *on*, but the real problem in German is the often tenuous distinction between a true and an apparent passive. Yet the teaching problem is materially facilitated if we remember that in cases of ambiguity English has a similar way of definitely establishing the difference. The often used example of the house that *was surrounded* by the police is immediately rendered unequivocal by putting the word *got* in place of *was*. This is the same verb that is used in the sentence *It got dark*—German *Es wurde dunkel*. Probably only some prudish fear that this might be "poor English" has prevented its wider use in actual instruction. But current, colloquial English, especially such as is a necessary device for clarity, need never be considered an unsavory influence on our classes and

certainly will not be new to them or upset their well-established feeling for what is colloquial and what is formal. On the contrary, the use of purely formal, literary English as a basis for foreign language instruction gives the distorted impression that all Europeans are "stuffed shirts." We can win the student's interest much more effectively by showing him that the foreign language can and does express exactly the same things he keeps saying in his own everyday English.

There are, of course, many other items of grammatical nomenclature that could be discussed here. If the majority of my examples are from German, that is not only because most of my teaching experience has been in that language but also the result of a firm conviction that this is the one most urgently in need of liberation from the tyranny of Latin grammar. Here, then, are just a few more suggestions: for example, "participial constructions," which are often not participial (I prefer Professor Lenz's³ term "extended adjective construction" as much more explicit); "inverted" and "transposed" order—poorly chosen words that give the impression of abnormalities (Sharp and Strothmann⁴ use the beautifully simple terms "verb-second position" and "verb-last position"); "separable" verbs which are often combinations of originally independent elements—that is, verbs and what might be called "attachable" adverbs, and so forth. Additional examples in his own language will no doubt occur to the reader.

There is one especially irksome detail in Russian that deserves special mention. Most teachers of that language do not seem to realize that the terms "hard" and "soft," so vital in explaining pronunciation and orthography, are utterly meaningless to all non-Slavs. Either the teacher must explain in detail exactly what a Russian means by "hard" or "soft," or he must use other terms, such as "back" and "front." The word "palatalized," which is occasionally used, explains only half of the issue and is just as mystifying to American students as "hard" and "soft."

But this discussion would be seriously incomplete without a reference to what has been quite needlessly made the prime exhibit in our chamber of grammatical horrors—the subjunctive. Students groan at the mere mention of the word, and we teachers often unintentionally infect our classes with this ridiculous attitude simply because we are unconsciously so imbued with the traditional awe of the subjunctive that we cannot rid ourselves of it even when we realize it is unnecessary.

The source of the alleged difficulty of the subjunctive is, of course, to be found in Latin, and even then, perhaps not so much in the language itself as in the Roman holiday the academic grammarians made of it. Here, to use a modern idiom, they saw their chance to "go to town," and go they did, giving us such delightful terms as *protasis* and *apodosis*, *contrary-to-fact*

³ *Scientific German*. W. W. Norton and Company, pp. 174 ff.

⁴ *German Reading Grammar*. Ginn and Company, pp. 12 and 47.

conditions (note the ingenious manhandling of the English language), *optative*, *deliberative*, *potential*, *hortatory* or *jussive* subjunctives, not to mention *future more vivid* and *future less vivid*, neither of which is as vivid as the resulting nightmare. The fact that these terms are often of very great use to professional linguists is quite beside the point. An elementary language class has no business sounding like a grammarians' convention.

The Latin language evidently did have a fairly complete subjunctive "mood" with a full set of tenses and aspects. But to impose this classification on English and German, which certainly have no such fully developed system, amounts almost to a crime. Even in the modern descendants of Latin itself, the original array of forms and their uses has changed so extensively as to merit a completely new description unencumbered by historical prejudices. How the childishly simple Slavic equivalent of these verb-forms ever escaped the zeal of the Latinists is a question yet to be investigated. With only a little ingenuity they could have set up complete paradigms for a Russian subjunctive and conditional with elaborate rules for their use, thereby achieving the same obscurity in which they so successfully shrouded the other languages.

The so-called subjunctive includes two entirely separate phenomena which, from the pedagogical point of view, at least, have very little to do with each other. One is that of the condition involving an imaginary situation, the other that of the unaccomplished act, usually coupled with a wish or an exhortation for its completion. Only in Russian are both expressed by exactly the same forms. Since Spanish and Italian have retained most of the characteristics of the Latin forms in conditional sentences, we are justified here in meeting a real teaching problem by resorting to a special terminology. In French, however, the usage is so close to the English that there is certainly no point in employing the Latin nomenclature or even complicating the issue with the bothersome terms *contrary-to-fact* or *unreal* conditions. For all practical purposes straight translation will give the desired result as long as the French imperfect (of the *variable*, that is, "finite" or "inflected" verb) is used for the English past in the if-clause. And for German the situation is substantially the same. Exactly as in English, the German *simple past*, whether alone or as an auxiliary accompanied by an infinitive or participle, usually refers to an imaginary situation when it is used in an if-clause. The fact that for certain verbs this German past tense then appears in a slightly modified form does not justify the introduction of the term "subjunctive." It is simply a "modified past." And for the concluding clause all that need be said is that the auxiliary *würde* is the equivalent of the English *would*. This, as already pointed out above, renders even the term "conditional" superfluous. Of course, if we insist on being affected and use the form *should* in place of the generally used *would*, then we have only ourselves to blame if extra complications arise.

Even where the modified past takes the place of a conditional (*hätte*

for *würde haben*, *müsste* for *würde müssen*), whether alone or with a *constant* form (that is, a participle or infinitive), the same name can still be employed. These forms also have an additional use which is peculiar to German—namely, in indirect quotations; yet even here the English equivalent is so often a past tense that the term “subjunctive” is still not justified. Seen from this angle it is all impressively simple; yet not too long ago German teachers were practically staging a pitched battle over the “subjunctive,” between the Prokosch method and the Latinist tradition. Neither side saw the forest for all the trees, and the resulting confusion of terms is still one of the major sources of futile argument about purely academic technicalities. Only a full abandonment of all the old nomenclature, followed by a completely fresh start, can ever establish order in place of the present chaos.⁵

In this connection it should also be pointed out that where a form has several uses, it is well-nigh impossible to select a name that will literally cover them all. The word “dative,” as we have seen, stands for only one of a whole variety of functions and perhaps not even for the most frequent. Moreover, the aptness of any name depends largely on the *order* in which the uses of a particular form are taken up. Thus the term “modified past” is effective only if the form so named is first seen in sentences where it is equivalent to an English past. Even the traditional term “past subjunctive” is subject to this condition.

The myth concerning the difficulty of the subjunctive is largely traceable to the use of this mood as an expression of the unaccomplished act, a use which is highly developed in the Romance languages but atrophied almost to the point of disappearance in German. It cannot be denied that the occurrence of the subjunctive in such cases is a highly subjective matter that can never be fully mastered by the average language student, but one wonders whether there has not been too much emphasis on the diversity of individual possibilities instead of on a single basic principle ultimately underlying all of these variations. It is not, however, merely this tendency to present formidable lists of its uses that has led to the fear of the subjunctive but rather the simple fact that the whole topic is reserved until so late a time in the course, as well as that until then the student is actually led around it and shielded from it as if it were a dangerous machine to be operated only by those properly trained to do so by a long period of apprenticeship. By that time, of course, the student has become so thoroughly “indicative-minded,” as my departmental colleague Professor Raven so aptly expresses it, that it is no wonder the prospect of a whole new set of tenses in another “mood” arouses at least awe if not terror.⁶ We have quite

⁵ A more complete presentation of treatment of the subjunctive appears under the title, “A Word from the Unredeemed,” *The German Quarterly*, January, 1947, pp. 37–41.

⁶ A similar situation exists to a lesser degree in the teaching of the Russian perfective aspect.

needlessly overemphasized the dichotomy between the indicative and subjunctive. Even in the Romance languages it is not so sharp as we tend to make it; certainly it does not exist in the mind of the native speaker. In German, of course, there is no dichotomy at all, and it is only because the Latin-worshipping grammarians have artificially created one that we have been basing our teaching methods on its assumed existence. German does have a special verb-form for exhortations, an "exhorting form" or "wishing form," let us say. (*Er lebe hoch! So sei es!*) It exists for most verbs only in the third person singular. The six-person paradigms given in most textbooks for this so-called "present subjunctive" ("form I" by the Prokosch method) constitute one of our most beautiful white elephants, a fitting monument to Latinist pedantry. The wishing-form also occasionally—especially in formal writing—replaces the third person singular of the modified past in indirect quotations and purpose-clauses, but since the student himself is hardly likely to write any books or scientific articles in German, this is a technicality whose sole importance lies in its correct recognition for purposes of reading. Except for the form *sei*, the wishing-forms in indirect quotations and purpose-clauses are so easily identified that the student almost automatically understands their meaning. He may not be able to give you the name of the verb-form or explain why it is used, but why should he have to do so?

At the risk of being branded an iconoclast I have intentionally overstated the case against the villainous "Latin-worshipper," mainly in order to drive home a point. While there is no need for losing one's sense of proportion and becoming an uncompromising radical, it should nevertheless be clear to all language teachers that we have allowed ourselves to be cornered in an untenable position. In our grammatical explanations we are talking a jargon our students do not understand, and we cannot simply take refuge in the sulking contention that their English teachers are at fault for not having taught them what we think they ought to know. It is time we took stock of our situation and organized a well-planned house-cleaning. That will, of course, require much careful thought, and I would be the last to advocate an irresponsible, wholesale abandonment of the work of our predecessors.

We all do lip-service to the fact that we are teaching *language* and not *grammatical theory*, but on the other hand too many of us are so tied down by tradition that it will take almost superhuman will-power to regain our freedom from a point of view that changing times have rendered inapplicable. To quote a well-worn cliché, grammar, for all its importance and indispensability, is still only a means to an end and must be kept from becoming an end in itself. One way in which it tends to "steal the show" is through its technical verbiage. The traditional terminology may have been justified at a time when we could assume that it was already familiar to

our students, but nowadays it is just an extra burden that obscures the actual subject-matter of our courses. It makes the tool too big for the job it is expected to do. It is much like the professor of electrical engineering who gives you a discourse on the theory of electromagnetism in answer to your question regarding the proper wiring of your desk lamp.

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MIDDLE STATES CONVENTION

The Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Middle States will hold its annual convention at Haddon Hall, Atlantic City, November 29, 10:30 A.M.

The theme of the meeting—the teaching of conversation—will be discussed from three points of view: the classroom teacher, Miss Esther M. Eaton, Garden City High School, New York; the supervisor, Miss Marguerite Zouck, Supervisor of Modern Foreign Languages, Baltimore, Maryland; and the editor, Dr. José Padín, Editor-in-Chief, D. C. Heath and Company. The discussion will be led by Miss Emilie Margaret White, Director of Foreign Languages in Divisions I-IX, Washington, D. C.

Editorial

The Teaching of Grammar in Beginning Classes

One of the problems which vexes the average teacher is how to teach grammar to elementary students. The rules are, in the opinion of many, necessary for the study of the language, even at the beginning. Knowledge of the rules requires an acquaintance with a large number of technical terms, almost wholly unknown to the student. This forces the student to study statements about grammar expressed in words with which he is unfamiliar. The result is confusion. Blaming the English department for not teaching him the meaning of the noun, active verb, possessive pronoun, and so forth does not help the student. We must begin with what he knows, not what we think he should know.

In their efforts to solve the problem there seem to be two main tendencies among teachers. The first is to eliminate as far as possible the technical jargon, describing the functions of the parts of speech before giving them names. Whenever only a few terms are introduced in a lesson and again carefully and clearly presented subsequently until they are fully understood, there is a measure of success. Another tendency is to disregard the rules and parts of speech at the beginning, introducing grammar only after the student can use the language to some extent.

We know that a knowledge of the rules of grammar has slight correlation with correct speech. If we are conscious of grammar when we speak, read, write or hear a language, we are not fully masters of it. It is only when grammar drops wholly or partly to the subconscious that we have the mastery of a language. Therefore, we should teach so that the student learns at the earliest possible moment to use the language without thinking (or trying to think) of rules. He should be given practice in a text which has been carefully prepared to train him in the use of the important principles of grammar. This text should tell a story and should interest the student in a further explanation of the theme introduced at the beginning. His mistakes may be corrected by saying: "That is wrong. This is correct." and by omitting for the time the grammar rule involved.

Later, when he has some facility in the use of the language, the student may be encouraged to discover, as completely as he can, the rules that govern the problems which are presented. Then the names of the parts of speech may be given gradually.

To give the student time to learn something of the language before overwhelming him with explanations about the language in terms he does not understand even when applied to English is the theory being advocated by more and more of the teachers of foreign languages.

Notes and News

Central States Modern Language Teachers Association

The thirtieth annual meeting was held in two divisions on opposite fringes of the Association's sixteen-state territory. The Executive Council was called to session by President Ackermann in Madison the afternoon of April 25, 1947. No association business meeting was held in 1947, but the secretary-treasurer read a brief report at both divisions and distributed a mimeographed financial report. President Ackermann announced to both divisions the decision of the Executive Council to hold the 1948 meeting in Chicago, April 30-May 1.

MADISON

The Madison meeting was held April 25-26, 1947, under the general chairmanship of Laura Johnson, Vice-President of the Association. Committee members were S. W. Riegel, E. W. Hesse and Alexander Kroff.

At the annual dinner, attended by ninety-three persons, Dr. Johnson presided. She introduced Elfriede Ackermann, Principal of Langland School, Chicago, who as president of the Association, delivered a message entitled "Recreation for the Modern World." Following the address students and faculty members of the language departments, University of Wisconsin, provided entertainment. A one-act play in German, nine Spanish dances and a song-series accompanied by guitar and selected scenes from the Molière comedy *Les précieuses ridicules* offered an inspirational demonstration of art in foreign cultures which was near-professional in its excellence.

At the Saturday morning general session Philo M. Buck, Chairman of the Department of Comparative Literature, University of Wisconsin, delivered an address entitled "Gateways." Walter V. Kaulfers of Stanford University spoke on the topic "The Modern Languages—a Postwar View."

At noon 148 persons were served in three luncheon divisions—French, German and Spanish; there was no Italian luncheon. The luncheon speakers were: (*French*) A symposium "*La vie universitaire en France aujourd'hui*" by Madeleine Fleury, Marguerite Ziering and Hélène Rémodin; (*German*) "*Hermann Hesse, Nobelpreisträger*" by Norbert Fuerst, University of Wisconsin; (*Spanish*) "Spanish Psychology" by R. I. Rosaldo, University of Wisconsin.

Following the luncheons the meetings were turned over to the section officers and the Italian section convened. The 1948 section chairmen for French, Spanish and German and both officers for Italian, as elected during the session, are listed at the end of this report.

French—C. J. LeVois, University of Iowa High School, *Chairman*; Mildred Morgan, West High School, Madison, *Secretary*. Papers: "Oral-Aural Work—Theory Practice, Aims" by M. S. Pargment, University of Michigan; "*La vie théâtrale à Paris pendant les dix dernières années*" by Alexandre Aspel of Paris, Visiting Professor at University of Iowa.

German—C. R. Goedsche, Northwestern University, *Chairman*; Walter Reichart, University of Michigan, *Secretary*. Papers: "*Deutsches Schrifttum seit dem Kriegesende*" by F. K. Richter, Illinois Institute of Technology; "Various Uses of Recordings and Listening Equipment in Secondary-School Language Courses" by Richard H. Delano, Lake Forest Academy. President Ackermann reported for the Committee on Coördination of One-Year College and Two-Year High-School German, proposing a series of subcommittees which would gather suggestions and pool them with an over-all coördinator, who would report combined results at the 1948 German section. The proposal was accepted, subject to confirmation at the Columbus session.

Italian—Joseph Rossi, University of Wisconsin, *Chairman*; Marie Davis, University of Wisconsin Extension, *Secretary*. Papers: "Studies on Italian Phonetics in America" by Karl Bottke, University of Wisconsin; "The G. I. University in Florence" by Alfred Galpin, University of Wisconsin. The illness of Elton Hocking, Northwestern University, prevented his attendance to read the third paper.

Spanish—Everett W. Hesse, University of Wisconsin, *Chairman*; Marian Coy, Waukegan Township High School, *Secretary*. Papers: "The Place of Languages in the Study of World Cultures" by James A. Cúneo, University of Minnesota; "Bridging the Gap between the Social Sciences and the Study of Spanish" by E. C. Lefort, University of Minnesota. A committee—Kathleen Joyce, Frank Schmerda, Meta Steinfort and Ruth Schoen—was appointed to canvass the feasibility of establishing a Wisconsin chapter of AATSP.

COLUMBUS

The Columbus meeting was held May 9-10, 1947, under the general chairmanship of James B. Tharp, Secretary-Treasurer of the Association. Committee members were Don Demorest, Justina D. Epp, Leona Glenn, Ethel LaVelle and Reinhold Nordsieck.

The invitation contained in the program for high school and college teachers to come early in order to visit classes on Friday, May 9, was accepted by several dozen people. Class schedules were requested by thirty-six high school and by thirty college teachers, but others attended who had not written in for schedules. Since there was no way to keep a tally of the visits in the various University classes and in the high schools of Columbus, there are no exact figures to report. Some fifty-five persons attended the demonstration class in first-year French at University School, conducted by Edward Allen, and remained afterward to discuss with him the language work of the school in general and the activities of this class in particular.

At the annual dinner, attended by ninety-seven persons, President Ackermann

presided. The address of the evening by Guy Snavelly, Executive Director, Association of American Colleges, was entitled "World Trends in Business and Social Relations and the Implications for Foreign Language Study." Following the address a program of German songs, Spanish songs and a solo dance, and French folkdances and a dramatized folksong by high school and college students was presented through the initiative of Ethel LaVelle, Vice-President, Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association.

At the Saturday morning general session two addresses were delivered: "International Educational Relations and the Implication for Foreign Language Study" by Harold Benjamin, Dean of Education, University of Maryland, formerly Director of the Division of International Educational Relations, U. S. Office of Education; "The Articulation of High School and College Foreign Language Study" by Stephen A. Freeman, Vice-President and Dean of Ecole Française of Middlebury College.

Following the general session the assembly separated into a high school and a college division for the purpose of round-table discussions of Dr. Freeman's remarks. The high school division studied the question "What can the high school do to improve preparation for foreign language study in college?" The panel, led by E. B. de Sauzé, Director of Foreign Languages of Cleveland, consisted of: Louise Bentley, Cincinnati; Mrs. Ethel S. Guthrie, Marietta; Agnès Dureau, Western Reserve University; F. Dewey Amner, Kent State University, Franz H. Mautner, Ohio Wesleyan University, Sister M. Consilia, Toledo. The college division attacked the topic "The Content of the College Language Course." The panel: D. F. Ratcliff, University of Cincinnati; F. J. Kramer and Walter Meiden, Ohio State University. The proceedings were stenographically recorded.*

At 12:30 a total of 214 persons were served at the four luncheons (each under the auspices of the Ohio chapter of the respective AAT) which afterward merged into the sectional meetings. The four sessions are reported below; the 1948 secretaries for French, German and Spanish and the officers for the new Slavonic Languages section are listed at the end of this report.

French—(Luncheon) Don Demorest, President of Ohio AATF, introduced the speaker, Stephen A. Freeman, whose address was entitled "On Your Guard"; eighty-six persons attended. (Section) Frederick Lehner, West Virginia State College, *Chairman*; Ralph Howell, Bexley High School, Columbus, *Secretary*. Papers: Symposium on "Modern Language Teaching Aids" (a) "Experience with Movies and Records" by Ethel LaVelle, North High School, Columbus; (b) "Broadcasting French and Classroom Teaching" by Walter Meiden, Ohio State University; (c) "Beginning French through Slide Films" by Frances G. Patterson, Harman Avenue School, Dayton. Other papers: "Veterans in Language Classes" by Ernst Willner, University of Illinois, Navy Pier, Chicago; "Existentialism in Modern French Poetry" by Claude Strauss, Ohio State University.

German—(Luncheon) Reinhold Nordsieck, Acting President of Ohio AATG, presided at the organization of an Ohio Chapter; forty persons were present. (Section) Bernhard Blume, Ohio State University, *Chairman*; D. S. Berrett, Indiana

* The mimeographed proceedings, including the text of Dr. Freeman's address, may be purchased for fifty cents postpaid from the Secretary-Treasurer, James B. Tharp, 120 Arts Hall, Ohio State University, Columbus 10, Ohio.

University, *Secretary*. Papers: "*Schiller als Erzieher*" by Melitta Gerhard, Wittenberg College; "Thomas Mann's *Mario und der Zauberer*" by T. C. Dunham, Ohio Wesleyan University; "English Grammar and Success in Foreign Languages" by Henry Kratz, Ohio State University.

Spanish—(Luncheon) Leona Glenn, President of Ohio AATSP, introduced the speaker, Gabriel Pradal, whose address was entitled "*Importancia de Federico Garcia Lorca en la poesia española*"; sixty-six persons attended. (Section) Richard Armitage, Ohio State University, *Chairman*; Paul D. Waldorf, Denison University, *Secretary*. Papers on the topic "Spanish Teachers in the War Effort": "*El revés de la medalla: the Spanish Teacher Learns by Teaching English*" by Charles N. Staubach, University of Michigan; "Mexico As I Saw It in the War Years 1942-43" by James R. Browne, Kenyon College.

Slavonic and Eastern European Languages—(Luncheon) After a group of Russian folksongs by students, Mrs. Peter Epp, Acting President of Ohio AATSEEL, introduced the speaker, A. P. Coleman, Columbia University and General Secretary of AATSEEL, whose paper was entitled: "Slavic Studies in the Central States"; twenty-two persons attended. (Section) Thomas A. Sebeok, Indiana University, *Chairman*; Mrs. Epp, Ohio State University, *Secretary*. Papers: "Words of Welcome" by Harlan Hatcher, Dean of College of Arts and Sciences, Ohio State University; "The Need for a Russian Basic Word List" by Harry Josselson, Wayne University; "The Teaching of Russian—Past, Present and Future" by Agnes Jacques, Roosevelt College; "Finno-Ugric Studies in Europe and in the United States" by Thomas A. Sebeok, Indiana University; "Scientific Russian" by Nikolai Baklanoff, Batelle Memorial Institute, Columbus.

OFFICERS OF THE 1948 SECTIONS

French

Chairman—Marguerite Struble, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls

Secretary—Kathryn Myers, Cranbrook School, Detroit

German

Chairman—Walter Reichart, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor

Secretary—A. E. Bigge, University of Kentucky

Italian

Chairman—Virgil A. Warren, Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago

Secretary—Mario Mascarino, 108 N. Lamon Ave., Chicago

Slavonic

Chairman—Harry Josselson, Wayne University, Detroit

Secretary—Agnes Jacques, Roosevelt College, Chicago

Spanish

Chairman—E. K. Mapes, University of Iowa, Iowa City

Secretary—Mary Heiskell, Memphis State College, Memphis

Eighteen companies purchased advertising space in the printed program of the dual session, and sixteen companies had exhibits at the two meetings. In addition to the Wisconsin and Ohio AAT chapters, the Wisconsin Association of Modern Language Teachers and the University of Wisconsin contributed money and cooperation to the Madison meeting; the Ohio Modern Language Teachers Association, the Modern Language Section of the Ohio College Association and Ohio State University contributed money, cooperation and services to the Columbus meeting.

Stephen L. Pitcher, Business Manager of *The Modern Language Journal*, attended both sessions; he was joined at Columbus by William S. Hendrix, Editor of the *Journal* and by Julio del Toro, President of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations, of which the CSMLTA is the largest affiliated member.

President Ackermann entertained association and sectional officers at Saturday breakfast, both at Madison and at Columbus.

In Chicago at the 1946 meeting there were 101 at the annual dinner and 227 at the luncheon; at the 1947 meetings 190 attended the dinners and 362 attended the luncheons. It will be decided at the 1948 meeting in Chicago whether or not to hold a dual session in 1949.

Because of the length of the report of this double meeting and the crucial shortage of printing paper, the descriptive details of the papers and activities have been omitted. The minutes of the various sections are in the hands of the undersigned who will be glad to answer questions about them.

Respectfully submitted,
JAMES B. THARP
Secretary-Treasurer

Miss Helen Elizabeth Rickabaugh, one of Pittsburgh's outstanding language teachers, passed away suddenly June 23, 1947. She was associated with the Peabody High School and was active in professional organizations.

New England Modern Language Association

The forty-fourth annual meeting of the Association was held in Boston, on Friday and Saturday, May 9 and 10, 1947.

On Friday evening there was an informal dinner in the Solarium of the Hotel Vendome, at which the President of the Association, Camillo P. Merlino of Boston University, presided. After a few words of greeting, Professor Merlino invited all the members present to join with him in a discussion of the topic "The Ideal Training of the Teacher of Modern Foreign Languages." He outlined what he considered the essentials in the preparatory courses which college students should have if they wished to become teachers of modern foreign languages in the secondary schools. In addition to courses in etymology and historical grammar and the study of the cultural background of the country whose language the student is preparing to teach, he listed courses in literature and linguistic training and recommended a minimum of twelve hours of courses in education.

A lively discussion, led by Max Levine of the Public Latin School, Boston, followed Professor Merlino's introductory remarks. Mr. Levine compared the training offered to aspirants for foreign language teaching in the early years of the cen-

tury with that required today. Edith M. Gartland, of the Teachers College, Boston, agreed with Professor Merlino that students in a liberal arts course who are training for teaching in the high school should have five years of preparation and more work at the undergraduate level than they now have in the study of the language. She felt that a semester of practice teaching combined with conferences on theory and the demonstration of applications of that theory in a classroom situation is of great value, and that the ideal situation is one in which a professor of modern languages rather than a professor of education is in charge of this teacher training. There was a definite difference of opinion expressed in the general discussion on the need of courses in formal education, such as Educational Measurement and Educational Sociology, for teachers of languages. It was only the lateness of the hour which finally brought the discussion to a close.

On Saturday morning the Association met in language groups at Boston University, 685 Commonwealth Avenue.

German section—10 A.M.—Werner Neuse, Middlebury College, *chairman*; Detlev W. Schumann, Brown University ("*Neuorientierung im 18. Jahrhundert*"), *speaker*.

Italian section—10 A.M.—Gabriella Bosano, Wellesley College, *chairman*; Grazia Avitabile, Wheaton College ("*Due romanzi di Elio Vittorini*"), *speaker*.

Spanish section—10 A.M.—Samuel M. Waxman, Boston University, *chairman*; George D. Howard, Brown University ("*A New Program in Latin American Studies*"), *speaker*.

French section—11:15 A.M.—Angelo P. Bertocci, Bates College, *chairman*; Edmond A. Méras, Exeter Academy ("*La France d'après guerre*"), *speaker*.

The annual business meeting was held in Room 206. Professor Merlino called the meeting to order at 12:25. The reading of the Secretary's report of the May 1946 meeting was omitted, the report being accepted as printed in the October 1946 number of the *Modern Language Journal*. The Treasurer's report for 1945-46 was read and accepted.

Charles W. French was re-elected a delegate to the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers Associations.

The report of the Nominating Committee, read by Marjorie L. Ellis, was accepted, and the Secretary-Treasurer was instructed to cast one ballot for the following officers who were declared elected:

President—Detlev W. Schumann, Brown University, Providence, R. I.

Vice Presidents—Edith M. Gartland, Teachers College, Boston, Mass.; Stowell C. Goding, University of Massachusetts, Amherst, Mass.; Paul L. Grigaut, University of New Hampshire, Durham, N. H.; Audra M. Pendelow, Warren Harding High School, Bridgeport, Conn.; Samuel M. Waxman, Boston University, Boston, Mass.

Librarian—Eva M. Grenier, Leominster, Mass.

Editor—Joseph Brown, Jr., University of Connecticut, Storrs, Conn.

Business Manager—Alexander D. Gibson, Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.

Secretary-Treasurer—Edward J. Powers, Technical High School, Boston, Mass.

Directors (three year term)—Mary A. Consodine, Girls' High School, Boston, Mass.; Ruth Ellison, High School, Brattleboro, Vt.; Hunter Kellenberger, Brown University, Providence, R. I.

Professor Merlino thanked all who had worked with him on plans for the meeting and asked that a motion be made that appreciation for the work of the retiring Secretary-Treasurer during her term of office be recorded in the minutes of the meeting, and it was so moved and voted.

Luncheon was served at one o'clock in the Hayden Memorial Auditorium. Ernest Hatch Wilkins, President Emeritus of Oberlin College, who was to have spoken on "Reminiscences of a Modern Language Teacher" was prevented from coming by sudden illness. Professor Merlino presented as the speaker Samuel M. Waxman of Boston University who had very graciously agreed to give some reminiscences of his years as a student and professor of modern languages. He compared the training offered prospective teachers of foreign languages in his student days with that offered today, and he summarized for those who had not been present at the dinner on Friday the main points of the discussion of the essentials in the formal and informal training of a high school language teacher. He invited the members present at the luncheon to give their views. The general feeling of those who spoke seemed to be that, while some work in education is of practical value, it should be taken only after thorough training in language and literature and that there should be greater cooperation between the education and foreign language departments in teacher training of students in liberal arts colleges.

The President introduced his successor in office, Detlev W. Schumann, who spoke briefly. A rising vote of thanks was extended to Professor Merlino for the splendid program which he had arranged.

Respectfully submitted,
ANASTASIA B. CONNOR
Secretary-Treasurer

Teachers and librarians are reminded of the visual materials and teaching aids which are available through the Pan American Union. Some may be purchased, and others are obtainable on a loan basis. For further information write to the School Secretary, Division of Intellectual Cooperation, Pan American Union, Washington 6, D. C.

Foreign Language Requirements for Admission to College

In an endeavor to determine what the colleges demand in the way of foreign language preparation of our high school students, a brief survey was made of the requirements of seventy-four higher institutions. Since the majority of our graduates do not enter schools at any great distance from the city, most of the colleges concerned are Eastern institutions—that is, forty-four of the seventy-four. The rest are in the South, Mid-West and West. However, they are fairly representative as a whole since large and small, denominational and secular schools are included.

The answers to the question as to the number of years of foreign language study required for admission result in the following tabulation:

None	22
One or two	1
Two	26
Two and two	2
Two or three	1

Three	10
Three or two and two	7
Three and two	3
Four	1
Four or two and two	1
	—
	74

According to the above figures, somewhat over seventy per cent of the colleges require a foreign language for admission. Although twenty-two institutions do not demand that a student have had a foreign language in high school, almost half of them (nine) recommend such preparation. In fact, five say explicitly that several units in a foreign language are required for graduation. Five of the schools not requiring a language are institutes of technology. However, among the latter there are three that do demand language preparation. Including the colleges that "recommend" the offering of units in foreign language for admission, the total is raised to eighty-two and a half per cent.

In other words, four-fifths of our higher institutions favor the study of a foreign language in high school. About one-fifth recommend the study of two languages.

The variety of languages accepted is wide. In addition to the ones taught conventionally, Hebrew, Portuguese and Polish are recognized. A number of colleges mention Latin specifically. One institution requires four years of Latin, or two of Latin and two of a modern language. Another well-known Eastern women's college requires two years of one and three of another, one of which must be Latin, Greek or German.

It seems somewhat puzzling to find such a wide variety of requirements. Also the high school administrator wonders why the colleges do not demand more than two years of preparation on the average. Three or four years ought to be required.

Would it not raise standards and put college teaching on a higher plane if the elementary instruction in the foreign language were given on the secondary level? Then the college could devote itself to conversation, literature and the practical use of the foreign language as a tool in research.

THEODORE HUEBENER

*Director of Foreign Languages
New York City*

*Personalialia**

Abilene Christian College, Abilene, Texas. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: Alice Henderson—in French.

Promotions: J. W. Treat—to Associate Professor of Romance Languages.

L. Haven Miller—to Assistant Professor of Spanish.

Adelphi College, Garden City, New York. Deptmt of Modern Languages.

Leave of absence: Siegfried H. Muller—to write doctoral dissertation

University of Alabama, University, Alabama. Department of German.

Promotion: J. C. Hayes—to Professor.

Resignation: M. E. Valk, Assistant Professor—to University of Florida as Associate Professor.

Alfred University, Alfred, New York. Department of Romance Languages.

Appointment: Luis Ramirez—Assistant Professor of Spanish—from Syracuse University.

Return from leave: Marie Louise Cheval, Assistant Professor—from Paris.

American University, Washington, D. C. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: André Gschaedler—Assistant Professor.

Promotion: Ruberta M. Olds—to Associate Professor and Head of Department of Modern Languages and Chairman of Division of Languages.

Retirement: C. H. Leineweber—after twenty-one years of service.

University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona. Department of Spanish and Portuguese.

Appointment: A. W. Bork—Assistant Professor.

Resignation: Josephine Buffa—to California.

University of Buffalo, Buffalo, New York. Departments of German and Romance Languages.

Appointment: Helen W. Burrell—Assistant Professor.

Leave of absence: Annemarie M. Sauerlauder—to University of Washington.

Promotion: Charles J. Beyer—to Professor and Head of Department.

Carnegie Institute of Technology, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointments: Sara Elizabeth Piel (Pennsylvania College for Women) and Albert Tarulis—Assistant Professor.

Death: Vincent G. Parisi, Associate Professor. Died August 20, 1947.

Leave of absence: Harold E. Stearns, Jr., Assistant Professor—to Army.

* These items were received between August 13 and September 14, 1947. Only those of professorial rank are included.

City College, New York, New York, Department of German.

Appointment: Ludwig Kahn—Assistant Professor—from Vassar College.

Coe College, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. Division of Modern Languages.

Appointments: Paul A. Graber—Assistant Professor of German—from Luther College, Jarvis B. Burner—Assistant Professor of Romance Languages—from Kansas State Teachers College.

Promotion: George R. Hilton—to Associate Professor of Romance Languages.

Resignations: Donald A. McKenzie, Associate Professor of German and Latin—to University of New Mexico as Associate Professor of German. Betty J. Eilertsen, Assistant Professor of Romance Languages—to University of Kentucky as Assistant Professor of Romance Languages.

Colorado College, Colorado Springs, Colorado. Department of German.

Appointment: T. O. Brandt—Associate Professor—from William and Mary.

Resignation: H. W. Rosenharpt, Assistant Professor—to go with Rotary Institute of International Understanding.

Retirement: Nebelah Hartness, Associate Professor—after twenty-seven years of service.

Davis and Elkins College, Elkins, West Virginia. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: S. Benton Talbat—Dean of Faculty.

University of Denver, Denver, Colorado. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointments, Marcelino C. Peñuelas and Ward Powell—Assistant Professor.

Promotions: S. O. Palleske—to Associate Professor. Jose Moreno—to Assistant Professor.

Resignation: Josef Stadelmann, Assistant Professor—to the University of Houston.

Retirement: Benecia Batione—after twenty-three years of service.

College of Emporia, Emporia, Kansas

Retirement: Beulah Altman—after twenty-two years of service.

Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: Albert L. Leduc—Assistant Professor of French—from U. S. Military Academy.

Leave of absence: Mildred Finnegan, Assistant Professor of French—to complete doctorate at Michigan.

Promotions: Dorothy Hoffman—to Professor. Margaret Campbell—to Associate Professor.

Guilford College, Guilford College, North Carolina. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointments: Muriel D. Tomlinson—Associate Professor of French and Spanish. Elfrieda Frank—Assistant Professor of Classical Languages and German.

Leave of absence: William B. Edgerton, Associate Professor—graduate study at Columbia University.

Resignation: Erna P. Trammell, Associate Professor of German and Spanish.

Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Departments of Romance Languages and Literatures and Germanic Languages and Literatures.

Appointments: Amado Alonso—Professor of Romance Languages and Literatures. Jean-Joseph Seznec—Smith Professor of the French and Spanish Languages. Heinrich Schneider—Visiting Lecturer (first semester 1947-48)—from Cornell University.

University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois. Department of Germanic Languages.

Appointment: E. A. Philippson—Associate Professor—from University of Michigan.

Promotion: John R. Frey—to Associate Professor.

State University of Iowa, Iowa City, Iowa. Department of Romance Languages.

Promotions: C. E. Cousins—to Professor and Head of Department of Romance Languages. Ruth Davis—to Associate Professor. Alexandre Aspel and E. W. Ringo—to Assistant Professor.

Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kansas. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: Robert E. Pyle—Assistant Professor—from Kansas University.

Leave of absence: Dorothy B. Pettis, Associate Professor—to study.

Resignation: Cornelia W. Crittenden, Associate Professor.

Lafayette College, Easton, Pennsylvania. Department of Modern Languages.

Promotion: Harold W. Streeter—to Professor.

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts. Department of Modern Languages.

Promotion: Fritjof A. Raven—to Assistant Professor.

Retirement: Herman R. Kurrelmeyer—after forty-five years of service.

University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, Department of German.

Leave of absence: H. W. Nordmeyer—first semester—for research.

Resignation: E. A. Philippson, Assistant Professor—to University of Illinois.

Michigan State College, East Lansing, Michigan. Department of Foreign Languages.

Appointment: William M. Seaman—Associate Professor of Classics.

Leave of absence: Johannes Sachse—to study at University of Wisconsin.

Promotion: Harry C. Barnett—to Associate Professor.

Resignation: Linton C. Stevens, Assistant Professor—to University of Alabama.

Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont. Departments of French and Spanish.

Appointments: Stephen A. Freeman—Director of the Middlebury College Summer Language Schools. Claude Bourcier—Dean of the Middlebury College French Summer School. Samuel Guarnaccia—Dean of the Middlebury College Spanish Summer School and Acting Chairman of the Spanish Department. Juan Fernandez de la Vega—Lecturer in the Spanish Department.

Morningside College, Sioux City, Iowa. Department of Romance Languages.

Resignation: Alfred Bruce Gaarder, Associate Professor—to Louisiana State University as Assistant Professor.

Retirement: Henry Frederick Kanthlemer, Professor—after forty-seven years of service.

Muhlenberg College, Allentown, Pennsylvania. Department of Romance Languages.
Appointment: Calvin Claudel—Assistant Professor—from Beloit College.

Muskingum College, New Concord, Ohio. Department of Modern Languages.
Appointment: Emil Holzhauser—Associate Professor—from Breck School.
Promotion: Charles D. Morehead—to Associate Professor.

Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois. Department of German.
Appointment: Harold Jantz—Professor—from Princeton.
Promotion: Meno Span—to Assistant Professor.
Return from leave: A. J. Zieglschmid—from University of Oregon.

University of Notre Dame, Notre Dame, Indiana. Department of Modern Languages.
Appointments: Paul F. Bosco—Associate Professor. Joseph A. James—Assistant Professor—from MacMurray College.

Occidental College, Los Angeles, California. Department of Modern Languages.
Appointment: Austin E. Fife—Associate Professor—from Santa Monica Junior College.
Leave of absence: James G. Bickley, Professor (from February to September 1948)—for research work in Spain.
Retirements: William G. Bell and Hugh S. Lowther—after thirty-seven and twenty years of service respectively.

Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Department of Romance Languages.
Promotions: Gabriel Pradal, Ramón Rozzell and Claude Strauss—to Assistant Professor.

Ohio Wesleyan University, Delaware, Ohio
Appointment: Edward Baraty—Assistant Professor of German and French—from Culver-Stockton College.
Promotion: Paul T. Hahn—to Associate Professor.

Otterbein College, Westerville, Ohio. Department of Modern Languages.
Appointment: Glenn Conrad—Assistant Professor—from Ohio State University Graduate School.

Park College, Parkville, Missouri. Department of Modern Languages.
Appointment: Ruth Bunker—Professor and Chairman of Modern Language Department.

Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pennsylvania. Department of German.
Appointments: Dagobert de Levie (Sampson College) and Werner F. Striedieck (University of Michigan)—Assistant Professor.

Randolph-Macon College, Ashland, Virginia. Department of Romance Languages.
Promotion: L. Paul Miller—to Associate Professor of Romance Languages.

Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey. Department of German.
Appointment: Frederick Hiebel—Assistant Professor—from Upsala College.
Promotion: Albert W. Holzmann—to Professor.

University of South Dakota, Vermillion, South Dakota. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: Inez Hollingsworth—Assistant Professor of Spanish.

Promotion: Alexander P. Hartman—to Professor of French and German, Head of French Department.

Retirement: E. M. Greene, Professor of French—into "half time."

Southwestern University, Memphis, Tennessee. Department of Romance Languages.

Appointments: Jared Wenger—Associate Professor of Romance Languages—from Princeton University. George R. Shipman—Assistant Professor of Modern Languages—from Yale University. Robert L. Roussey—Assistant Professor of French.

Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri. Department of Foreign Languages.

Appointments: Nicole Hebert—French. Kathleen Hickey, Muriel Long and John Rios—Spanish.

Leave of absence: Mr. Delmez—French—to work on doctorate at University of Missouri.

Promotions: Madelaine Touchstone—to Chairman of Spanish Department. Wilfred B. Neff—to Chairman of Foreign Language Division.

Resignations: George D. Hocking, Edith J. Kendrick, Joseph Raymond and Helen Yeats.

University of Texas, Austin, Texas. Department of Romance Languages.

Appointment: Miguel Romero-Navarro—Professor of Romance Languages—one year appointment.

Death: C. M. Montgomery, Professor. Died March 25, 1947.

Promotion: E. F. Haden—to Professor.

University of Toledo, Toledo, Ohio. Department of Foreign Languages.

Appointments: Margaret Eransquin—Assistant Professor of German and Spanish. Ellen Di Gram Battista—Assistant Professor of French and German. James Rishell—Assistant Professor of French and Spanish.

Tulane University, New Orleans, Louisiana. Department of French.

Appointments: Panos P. Morphopoulos—Associate Professor—from Johns Hopkins University. William S. Woods—Associate Professor-elect—from University of South Carolina.

University of Tulsa, Tulsa, Oklahoma. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: William S. Price—Associate Professor and Head of Department—from Ohio State University.

Death: Ellen Goebel, Head of Department. Died February 28, 1947.

University of Utah, Salt Lake City, Utah. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointments: Henri Barzun—Lecturer in French—from Kansas State University. Ilse Hecht—Special Lecturer in German—from Westminster Jr. College. Thomas Broadbent—Associate Professor of German—from Brigham Young University. Enrique de la Casa—Associate Professor of Spanish—from St. Teresa's, Kansas.

Leave of absence: Marc Chadbourne, French lecturer—to France for study and research. Paul Wyler, Associate Professor of German—to Switzerland for study and research.

Promotion: Madge Howe—to Assistant Professor of Spanish.

Retirement: William T. Runzler—after thirty years of service.

Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York. Departments of Spanish and German.

Leave of absence: Ruth Hofrichter, Professor, faculty fellow (second semester)—for research. G. Gunther, Assistant Professor—to spend year working in Germany. Margarita de Mayo, Professor—research work.

Promotion: Camila Henriquez Ureña—to Professor.

Resignation: Ludwig Kahn, Assistant Professor—to City College, New York.

Return from leave: Camila Henriquez Ureña—from Mexico.

Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. Department of Romance Languages.

Death: Bateman Edwards, Professor. Died September 1, 1947.

Leave of absence: Bernard Weinberg, Associate Professor—Guggenheim Fellowship.

Wellesley College, Wellesley, Massachusetts. Department of German.

Promotion: Barbara Solditt—to Associate Professor.

Resignation: Helen M. Mustand—new position.

Return from leave: Madalene Schindelin—from Switzerland.

Wheaton College, Wheaton, Illinois. Department of Foreign Languages.

Appointment: Jonathan G. Williams—Assistant Professor of French—from Ben Lippen School.

Resignation: Dora M. Soldner, Associate Professor of German—to Bluffton College.

Wofford College, Spartanburg, South Carolina. Department of Modern Languages.

Appointment: Roy E. Watkins—Professor of German—from Huron College.

Reviews

BISSON, LAURENCE, *A Short History of French Literature*. Penguin Books, Harmondsworth, Middlesex, England, and New York, 1943 and 1945, pp. 159.

This *Short History of French Literature* belongs to one of several series of inexpensive, paper-bound books published for the British public by the English Editions Penguin. Concerned mostly with French politics and discussions of French contemporary affairs, these series include also literary works as diverse as *La cousine Bette* and *Le neveu de Rameau*, and have apparently been well received by English readers; Professor Bisson's *Short History*, first published in 1943, had a second edition in 1945.

A useful work, more on account of its enthusiasm and thoroughness than for originality of design or thought, Bisson's *Short History* will be soon available to the American public. It is only fair therefore to mention some of its defects. An unfortunate beginning may disconcert certain readers: "The first blossoms of the springtime of French literature begin to unfold their buds in the early years of the twelfth century. But the seeds of both race and language had long been germinating. . . ." Bisson's premise—the unity of French literature—is quickly abandoned; there is an unconvincing explanation of the extreme limit (1789) set by the author for the classical period. More serious are the weaknesses of the last chapter, "The Cult of the Subconscious (1914-1940)." It is difficult to believe in the "extremely" dadaist element of Morand's *Lampes à Arc* and still harder to accept Bisson's poor opinion of Giraudoux and Claudel. Although *A Short History of French Literature* (the title adds: "From the Middle Ages to the Present Day") stops at the year 1938, there is no mention of *Les hommes de bonne volonté*; but a good deal of space, too much possibly, is given to a eulogy of Jean de la Varende, "in many ways representative of the best French traditions," who enjoys a *place d'honneur* at the end of the book. It may be added that the proof reading is indifferent.

But these, after all, are small defects. The reader will remember *A Short History of French Literature* for its sincerity, solidity, and earnestness. It has other characteristics to recommend it. Conscious of the two defects common to many *ouvrages de vulgarisation*, the author avoids their flippant tone and, with a few exceptions, does not stoop to over-simplification. On the contrary, *A Short History* has many of the good qualities found in the best of such works. Taking advantage of the necessities of space, Mr. Bisson has omitted pedantic or useless digressions and introduced throughout the book a refreshing conciseness. According to him, for instance, the *Discours de la méthode* "gives, as it were, a slow-motion picture of the mechanics of the French mind in action." Such conciseness, of course, may be dangerous: the *Contes drolatiques* are not "medieval" pastiches; Baudelaire is hardly "égrillard." It is no small feat, however, that in spite of its brevity, the book should succeed in mentioning, logically introduced, such uncommon writers as Paul Lacroix, Destutt de Tracy, Delécluze, or such rare works as the *estampies* or Voltaire's *Eriphyle*. Above all, *A Short History of French Literature*, first published in England in the darkest hours of the blitz, gives the impression of having been a labor of love. All through the book, the reader feels the very deep admiration of its author, Lecturer at Pembroke College, for the literature of a country which he knows well, and more particularly for some favorites among the French classics. There are delightful *morceaux de bravoure* in the sections devoted to Montaigne, Pascal, Victor Hugo; and even in the last chapter, the

passages concerning Proust and Paul Valéry, for example, in their precision and fairness, form valuable comments on these writers.

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SHIELDS, WILLIAM S., *Parlons français*. Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1947, pp. xv+208. Price, \$1.75.

A really practical and interesting conversation text! Although it was given me merely to review, I liked it so well that I decided at once to order it for a class. If it is a relief to me as a teacher of girls to find a text without an exclusively female point of view, you can imagine how delighted teachers of mixed classes and boys will feel about it.

Each chapter has several parts; the first and longest one has English sentences on the left page with equivalent sentences in French on the opposite page—idiomatic expressions in both cases, not slavish translations. Then there is a useful supplementary vocabulary (French-English). Next come about twenty questions whose answers require a knowledge of the vocabulary rather than the exact facts of the lesson. Then follows a group of "Situations" (in English), using the vocabulary, and then French suggestions for "Dialogues" and *Causeries* complete the chapter.

Every detail of the book is practical. The format is attractive. Appealing line-sketches by Jesse Spicer that will not date the text and that show a keen appreciation of typical French scenes are to be commended.

Perhaps the author expects too much knowledge of a high-school student (*Que pensez-vous du monopole du tabac du gouvernement français?*), but the preface says that the book is intended for college conversation courses or as a third year high school text. Anyway, do we not all feel it better to challenge the good student than to have the whole class think an author is stooping down to them?

The questions are good: *Pourquoi vaut-il mieux acheter des articles de première qualité? Comment est-ce que les grands magasins font de la réclame?* Their answers call for more than a rearrangement of the phrases in the first part of the chapter. Idioms are used skillfully, and their use in turn is expected—as it should be at this stage (*Les pauvres concierges! Tout le monde leur en veut.*).

Surely we have all had experience with conversation texts overloaded with notes, so much so that they almost deprive the instructor of his reason for existence. Mr. Shields leans in the other direction. I feel that he might have explained *Plombières, carte d'identité, le vol de 20 heures*. I feel that a map is a handy adjunct to every book. It is seldom that a classroom has a wall-map with names large enough that a student can locate places such as Versailles and Vouvray.

The vocabularies are complete and extremely well chosen, especially those in reference to an automobile and to photography. I wonder why Mr. Shields did not add an English-French list at the back. I rather wish the author had seen fit to include reference to the salvaging of cigarette butts, since he has the perfect situation for this. Perhaps another edition might include *la minuterie, un carnet de timbres*, and a word about where to look for *boîtes aux lettres* in Paris. I might prefer that he took *places* instead of *billets* for the opera, that he mentioned *films sonores* as well as *parlants*, that he included *nettoyage à sec* as well as *dégraisseur* (the latter makes me feel so much dirtier) and that he used the word *basketball* instead of just *basket* for his *équipe*.

The author is to be congratulated for the wealth of good material he has put in this text. His students at the United States Naval Academy will not be the only ones to profit by this modern book.

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KAYSER, WOLFGANG, *Kleine deutsche Versschule*, Sammlung Dalp, vol. 21. A. Francke Verlag, Bern, 1946, pp. 118. Price, \$1.15 (S. Fr. 4.60).

This slender, unpretentiously named volume represents a veritable introduction to the appreciation of German verse writing. Going far beyond a mere classification and analysis of technical terms, it reveals to the reader the working of the poetic genius and the nature of artistic creation. The general reader of lyric poetry, the student of literature and even the poet can read this book with profit.

In seven chapters (*Vom Verse, Von der Zeile, Von der Strophe, Gedichtstrophen und Gedichtformen, Von der Schicklichkeit der Wörter, Vom Reime, Vom Rhythmus*) the author develops at first the simpler and more obvious elements of his subject matter only to culminate his lucid discussion in the brilliant final chapter on rhythm.

Throughout the volume the author's judgments are based on his happy combination of objective critical faculties and sensitive subjective observations which seem to lead directly to the heart of his topic. The author has the noteworthy ability to communicate to the reader his delicate personal approach and to share with him his emotional experiences so that the boundaries of a mere discussion of technique are transcended. Again and again the reader is urged to test the author's statements by comparing his own personal responses to given selections with those of the author. Thus, a strong direct personal tie to the subject matter is also established in the reader.

In the all-embracing final chapter the true nature of rhythm is strikingly illustrated by a fine comparison of three poems with identical meters: Spee's "*Bei stiller Nacht, zur ersten Wacht*," Goethe's "*Hans Adam war ein Erdenkloss*" and Eichendorff's "*Versneit liegt rings die ganze Welt*." It becomes at once clear that coincidence of meter and rhythm is undesirable and that the independence of the cola must be preserved as opposed to the metrical pattern. When they overlap a deadeningly wooden monotonous effect is achieved. It follows from this that everything can be learned in poetry except rhythm, which is individually different with every poem. In it the poet expresses his most personal intangible qualities. This final chapter should be read with care and taken to heart by all aspiring young poets.

In conclusion I should like to congratulate the publishing house A. Francke for including this masterful treatment in its series Dalp (a series, somewhat similar to the little Göschen volumes, containing summaries of diverse fields of human knowledge). It should become a vademecum for all lovers of German lyric poetry as well as for the creative artist. The American student of German, however, will not be able to appreciate the book until he is well advanced in his German studies and can claim to have acquired a *Sprachgefühl* for the language.

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Vierzig Singradlein. The Thrift Press, Ithaca, New York. Price, \$.10.

BAERG, G., *Krippenspiel*. The Thrift Press, Ithaca, New York. Price, \$.10.

The Thrift Press has again enriched our incidental material so welcome for use in the German Club and in enlivening classroom instruction. Both are welcome adjuncts and in keeping with the principles of the Press, economical and in compact form.

The forty *Singradlein* will be particularly useful to those who have been waiting for a variety of canons but for whom the larger German collections like Jödes' were too cumbersome or inaccessible. Anyone who has ever sung Beethoven's three part canon, *O wie wohl ist mir am Abend* knows how much our students are interested in this strict but amusing form of singing. This pamphlet gives thirty-nine other two, three and four part songs. They increase merriment in German Club meetings, and the students will become better singers by adhering to these severe melodic disciplines.

The canon, as is well known, demands the strictest and most regular form of imitation.

One voice begins the melody, which is imitated note for note and interval for interval by a second, third or fourth voice, either at a same or different pitch; for example, it may be a fifth or octave higher or lower, but beginning a few beats later. Thus an interesting musical game of running after the leader results. This attempt at fleeing (*fuga*) and imitating is done according to rule, and the Greek name, *canon*, results. The continuation from end to the beginning produces a circular effect; the German, *Radel* (wheel), and some of the oldest canons were actually printed in wheel-like form. The title *Singradlein* seems especially appropriate.

This type of music is a challenge to both composer and singer, but canon singing may be practiced even by those who have no ear for accompaniment. The selections in this book are varied—some humorous, some familiar *Volkslieder*, such as "*Schlaf, Kindlein, Schlaf*," or "*Trara, das tönt wie Jagdgesang*." The authors were wise to change Caldara's canon to "*Kommt in den hellen Sonnenschein*," instead of "*Maienschein*." One wishes that the singing of canons might attain in America the importance it found as a *Gemeinschafts-Musizieren* in the modern Youth movement of the last forty or fifty years.

Professor Baerg's rhymed *Krippenspiel* is a modern dramatic adaptation of the Christmas story. After an *Einleitung* which may easily be shortened, there follow six *Bilder*. Each scene ends with a choir singing familiar Christmas carols. Among the seventeen characters are two innkeepers and one *Wirtin* who appear together in the third scene. Since there are no dialectical elements in the language of the play, it seems strange that the author did not modernize the names of the shepherds, especially that of *Lippai*. The author has changed the usual order of the Christmas story, introducing the shepherd scene after the Herod scene, and the shepherds after the three Kings.

It is valuable to have a presentable manger play in a convenient form.

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CASONA, ALEJANDRO, *Nuestra Natacha*, edited by William H. Shoemaker. D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1947, pp. xxxv+178. Price, \$1.50.

The play, *Nuestra Natacha*, in three acts, is based on the modern, progressive idea of youth: that in work and responsibility lies real happiness and that steadfast devotion to duty brings about a moral and spiritual self-reliance that is necessary for a satisfying life. It is a social drama depicting various types of young people, students mostly, their manner of thinking and their aspirations. As the curtain falls on the last act, we leave them working successfully and, in the main, unselfishly toward a better world in which every human being can achieve his own destiny.

The life of the university students, with their gaiety, their problems, their enthusiastic group spirit, their confidence that they or their leader Natacha can put to rights the world, or at least part of it, is representative of youth of all epochs and particularly of modern Spanish youth. These students give whole-heartedly a year of their lives to help Natacha work out a humanizing reform for the inmates of a reform school. But at the end of the year Natacha finds that the problems are not yet all solved; she cannot accept love when it first calls her, she must stay on at her post.

The contrasting element is seen in the rigid, old-fashioned ideas of the president of the school board of the reform school and in the first teacher, who shows little understanding of her pupils. On the other hand, don Santiago, head of the university and foster uncle of Natacha, shows how abreast of the times he is by his natural mingling and working with the students, his kindly attitude toward their pattern of thought and his sympathetic assistance in the new line of activities.

Faith in mankind permeates the entire play, and this means faith also in a new Spain that will emerge through sympathetic, keen understanding of social problems and the will to work out patiently spiritual and practical matters.

This student edition of *Nuestra Natacha* is a splendid example of thorough, scholarly editing on the part of Professor Shoemaker. The *Introduction*, including an appraisal of Casona's works and comments about his professional and dramatic career, is excellent reading in itself, for which the editor deserves high praise. Casona represents youthful thinking Spain which holds firmly to its progressive ideas and aspirations, realizing full well the responsibilities and even sacrifices that may be required to bring about the fulfillment of its ideals.

Notes, directions and music for the puppet play which the university students stage for the reform school are given at the end of the play. Many different exercises, suggestions for themes in Spanish, and projects make an excellent accompaniment for intensive study and cannot fail to develop linguistic ability and oral acuteness. The vocabulary is well done; an explanatory clause is added wherever it will increase both the knowledge and the interest of the reader.

The clear type, good paper, attractive covers—in short, the entire format—is of the traditional superior quality of D. Appleton-Century publications. Both the publishers and Professor Shoemaker are to be highly congratulated on the achievement of such a valuable contribution to the literary and educative world.

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NUNN, MARSHALL AND VAN SCOY, HERBERT, *Un viaje a Cuba*. The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1946, pp. 85. Price, \$1.50.

This is a new printing of the authors' elementary Spanish reader which was first published by Thomas Nelson and Sons. *Un viaje a Cuba* is not just another guide book through a Latin American country; it is the story of an American student who spends two weeks in Cuba gathering material on Julián del Casal. There are twenty chapters that give a brief glimpse of Cuban life in the country as well as in the capital, and the most important cultural centers are mentioned. The material is simple enough for use in the beginning classes. Vocabularies containing new words precede the chapters, which are followed by questions for conversation based on the text and grammar exercises. An adequate vocabulary follows the text material. The idiomatic expressions are translated, and difficulties in grammar are clarified in notes, at the foot of each page.

The original text has not been changed, but the chapters have been named in the new printing. The typographical errors in the original text have been corrected, and certain "anglicanismos" have been eliminated. A decided improvement has been the addition of thirteen pages of excellent photographs. There has been added a selected bibliography that may prove helpful to both teacher and student in finding material on the history and culture of Cuba.

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